

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN THE PRINCIPALSHIP: THE CASE OF THE
TASMANIAN PRINCIPALS' INSTITUTE

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DECLARATION

I certify that this Thesis contain no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any institute, college or university, and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the Thesis.

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ABSTRACT

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN THE PRINCIPALSHIP: THE CASE OF THE TASMANIAN PRINCIPALS' INSTITUTE

By Robert Banfield

This paper is presented as the final component of an Educational Doctorate Course undertaken by Robert Banfield. The author is currently principal at Huonville Primary School, Tasmania, Australia.

This paper undertakes to assess the quality of the professional development provided to principals in Tasmania by the Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.) during the period 1999 to 2002. During this time the T.P.I. was involved in pre accreditation, accreditation (of principalship competencies) and ongoing professional development to principals of state schools in Tasmania. This case study explores the quality of professional development provided against a framework model developed by the author. The framework model was derived from an extensive analysis of both national and international professional development program descriptions, feedback and research. The model attempts to synthesise the key components of the design and delivery of professional development to principals.

A broad selection of participants were interviewed to provide the core of the case study data.

The case study data strongly supported the model developed from the literature review. Several findings challenged the model and lead to proposed extensions to the model, particularly in the areas of content (holistic

versus competency based), access (distance and travel time), personal profiles of participants, family support, spaced learning structures, school based teams, I.C.T. support, flexible entry procedures, and mentoring.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The world of the educational leader is one of increasing change, complexity, diversity, and intensity. Paradoxically, at the same time the world of the educational leader is one of greater responsibility (Mulford, 2002). The growing importance of the school principal as an educational leader is evidenced not only by reference to results of his or her pivotal role in effective schools (see, for example, Marks, Louis & Printy, 2000; Silins & Mulford, 2002) but also the increasing preparedness on the part of governments to invest in the leaders of their schools and their training (Gronn, 2002).

In fact, in the past decade a renewed focus on quality assurance of the principalship through specific training and/or professional development needs of school principals has grown. The question may be asked as to why this has occurred.

1.1 Some possible change forces driving the imperative of effective principal's training

At least eight driving forces may be postulated: the help required to rescue 'failing' education schools or systems; the need to implement government change agendas; the older age profile of those currently in the principalship; the increasing demand for recognised qualifications which are often competency based; the rise in importance of professional associations; the current state of literature and research in

educational leadership; the assumption that leadership skills can be learnt; and the pressures from business, political or other non education based groups.

The first force, driving the issue of the quality of the principalship, especially through their training, is where a school or education system is seen to be 'failing' (or the social/political/educational expectations are changing). In such a situation it is tempting to assume that inspiring or training the principals of these schools can reverse the negative output trends (People's Daily, 2000). Given that researchers such as Day et al. (2000) and Silins et al. (1999) have found that the effect of the principal may account directly and indirectly for up to 25% of organisational learning within a school, and that organisational learning is linked to improved student outcomes, this assumption clearly carries some weight.

Second, recent educational change agendas are often externally generated and fast paced. Examples can include, devolution, national and state mandated curriculum development, information technology and national testing regimes. The link between devolution (site/local based management) and increased central accountability has been clearly acknowledged in the European context as a distinct work tension for many European school leaders (OECD, 2001). In Australia, mandated national benchmark testing and national curriculum expectations have created significant changed workloads for

principals (Cumming, 1998). These changes often require principals to change or adopt new skills quickly. Unfortunately, these pressures, as well as the increased difficulty and perceived undesirability of the job, have been identified as factors that can lead to principal turnover or shortages (Evans, 1995; d'Arbon et al., 2002). On the other hand, one way to attract and retain principals, as well as develop the new skills, may be through focussed training rather than the more traditional experiential, on-the-job model.

In countries such as New Zealand, devolution of school management happened virtually overnight with significant impact on principals (Wylie, 1997; Mulford et al., 2000). Increased devolution of administrative autonomy to schools has demanded a significant shift in the skills of some professionals. These skills include on the one hand marketing, legal, grant and submission writing and on the other high level interpersonal skills (Hegarty, 1983; Australian Primary Principals, 1997; Duignan, 1997; Mulford et al., 2000).

Third, as the current population of principals is inextricably ageing, pressure is placed on many less experienced educators to take on leadership roles. This problem can be compounded if there is a narrow age cohort of principals in their late 40's to mid 50's. In fact, in some countries there is a shortage of qualified candidates for openings in the principalship (see, for example, NAESP, 1998). A focussed generic training agenda based on leadership and management could be seen as

an efficient response to this succession issue. Interestingly, Hallinger and Murphy (1991) recognised that principals who did have positive learning experiences were also more likely to support the learning of rising subordinates.

The fourth driving factor relates to the increasing demand for qualifications. Transparent social systems demand that social leaders such as school principals have recognised qualifications to fulfil their jobs. In some jurisdictions these qualifications have been accessed through a recognised competency framework attached to the role. In Tasmania, for example, the Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.) undertook to accredit all competent principals through an assessment regime involving trained accredited peers and utilising a principal competency profile (Tasmanian Principals Institute, 2000, *Principal Competency profile*). Assessing and recognising the competencies of principals in this way may help increase public faith in educational leaders while at the same time assisting in recognising the development needs of individual leaders.

Fifth, professional associations can be seen as the only authority able to control the quality of their membership. This is especially so in vocations that demand a complex and flourishing set of skills and attributes (and sometimes qualifications) to maintain high competency levels. Internal training and accreditation programs by professional

associations become a response to this demand for internal (and sometimes external) accountability (Crews & Weakley, 1995).

Sixth, the body of educational leadership literature and research has matured, especially over the past decade. This is in contrast to the situation 100 years ago when the body of educational leadership research was minimal and the skills needed to fulfil the role may have involved no formal training at all. Much of this research points towards the significant impact that principals can make in schools (Schmuck, 1993; Huber, 2002). As a consequence, there may be increasing pressure to define the essentials of leadership and develop training agendas reflecting this research.

A seventh force may involve the assumption that leadership skills can be learnt or trained in some formal mode, as opposed to 'natural talent' or learning through experience over time. This assumption has been increasingly accepted (Hegarty, 1983). Caldwell (2002), for example, called for innovation in leadership to build future schools, with a complementary preparation and development program for principals.

Finally, business, political or other non-education based groups may perceive that by influencing leadership in education, their own change, survival, political or entrepreneurial objectives may be further promoted. Whilst this pressure may seem to be lacking in an

educationally ethical sense, evidence for its validity is apparent (Los Angeles Times, 2000, p.1; Principals Executive Program, 2000, p.1; Australian Primary Principals Association, 1997, p.14).

In a recent edition of the *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Management* a section on “Leadership Development” confirms some of the above eight pressures (Mulford, 2002). After a set of five chapters from five different countries, Mulford (2002) concludes:

Some of the themes in this set [of countries] are remarkably common. On the positive side are support for the importance of leadership development and the increasing growth of and investment in it. On the negative side is the criticism of standards, not only in terms of the increasingly longer lists of competencies/standards thought desirable for an effective educational leader but also the lack of an established link between them and student outcomes. Another common criticism is the selective borrowing of programmes across countries without due regard for the cultural differences involved. Other themes indicate differences of opinions, specifically in respect of a focus on the role or function of leadership and the value of contracting out leadership development to commercial, for-profit agencies. (p. 1009)

1.2 Significance of the study

Despite the forces driving for effective principal training and the subsequent renewed focus on quality assurance of the principalship through specific training and/or professional development needs of school principals, there has been remarkably little quality research in the area. The *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Management* has one of its six sections devoted to “Leadership Development” (Leithwood et al., 2002). While the editor of this section concluded that some of the themes are common, above all he argued, “more research in the area is urgently required” (Mulford, 2002, p.1009).

Given this situation, this study first attempts to synthesise the literature and research on effective professional development of principals using historical, political and international perspectives. A model is then developed to encapsulate the essences of effective professional development of principals. Finally, this model is used as a basis for analysing the efforts of the Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.) over a four year period. The study attempts to reflect on the quality of the model synthesised as well as the quality of the programs implemented through the T.P.I. .

It is proposed that the model in its modified form, as a result of undertaking this research, be used when planning and designing

future principal professional development programs, especially in displacing identified planning and design inefficiencies .

1.3 Research questions

The key research question for this study is: “Was the professional development program for principals (and aspiring principals) as offered by the T.P.I. of the highest quality?”

To answer this key question some linked sub-questions need to be pursued, that is, tested against the model that will be developed as a result of the review of the literature:

- “Did the program reflect effective design of professional development for principals?
- Did the program reflect effective delivery of professional development for principals?
- Did the program enhance the promotion chances for aspiring principals?
- Did the program produce substantive principals who had enhanced leadership skills?
- Did the program effect improved student outcomes?

1.4 Definition of Terms

The words training and professional development are used interchangeably in this discourse.

T.P.I. refers to the Tasmanian Principals Institute.

The terms certification and accreditation refer to completed training that results in a formally recognised qualification or certificate.

The terms principal, headmaster, and head are used interchangeably. These terms usually refer to the school leader and are sometimes culturally dependent. As the professional development of principals must necessarily consider the development of aspirant school leaders, who are often significant school leaders, the discussion in this case study includes aspirant leaders in the principal group, unless otherwise stated.

1.5 Summary and Organisation of Thesis

Internationally, nationally and locally there has been intense interest in the effective professional development of principals. At times this interest has involved a qualification process, however the main aim of all programs is to create and develop principals who can be most effective as managers and leaders of schools. Several driving forces have been postulated in this introductory chapter, however a common “bottom line” is the improvement of student outcomes in schools. The

reasons for improving student outcomes may be varied and often context dependent.

Given these forces driving for effective principal training and an identified need for more research in the area, this study has two main aims. The first is to develop an internationally useful model of effective principal professional development *design and delivery*. The second is to use the model to assess quality of the T.P.I. program in delivering effective principal professional development in Tasmania, with a view to suggesting any improvements that may be considered in future.

The next chapter reviews the literature on the professional development of principals and through the literature develops a model of the elements that need to be taken into consideration in quality professional development. Chapter three describes the study methods and procedures. Chapter four describes the results. Chapter five includes the findings, conclusions and implications for future quality assurance in the training of school principals.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of the literature consists of four sections: a brief historical overview of some of the influences on principal training; some current thinking on educational leadership training programs; international and Australian trends in the professional development of principals; and a summary that includes a model of the elements that need to be taken into consideration in the provision of quality principal professional development.

2.1 A Brief Historical Overview of Some of the Influences on Principal Training.

A brief historical overview of some of the influences on principal training may provide a useful lens for the understanding of principal's professional development in today's society. Gronn (1999) identified a pre-1900 phase of leadership training, predominantly in England. He considered that leaders at this time were largely selected through an ascriptive system where privileged offspring were selectively schooled for later elite roles, including that of headmasters. The basis of selection for these positions was criteria such as hereditary and family status. The public school system in England, schooled its graduates in athleticism, the classics, and imperialism. This process was often coloured by a militaristic outlook (Gronn, 1999).

This culture of leadership ‘training’ may have contributed to England’s decline in strategic economic advantage (through adherence to an orthodox, conventional thinking mode). Indeed, Gronn noted that in the 1960’s one leading British cabinet member described this type of leadership training as the “British disease” (Gronn, 2002).

At the turn of the twentieth century a comprehensive elite formal leadership system was not as well developed in the younger Australia and United States (Murphy, 1993) In these countries character and ideology seemed to be important characteristics for school leaders. Circa 1900, some principals were selected based on the moral and intellectual traits they had developed, rather than attendance at an elite school system (possibly due to the scarcity of public school graduates for principal positions).

Post 1900 saw an escalation of training for school leaders in the United States (Murphy, 1993) with the first university program for school leaders beginning in Columbia in 1905 at the Teachers College (Gronn, 2002). It could be argued that some of these early courses produced their own elites for, as Gronn (2002) noted, in 1939 there was a high proportion of superintendents with higher degrees from Teachers College.

A rising middle class composed of salaried managers possibly initiated a move away from the power of elites (Gronn, 2002). The Business

School, at the University of New York, was in fact founded in 1900, largely to cater for the exploding need for middle managers in businesses, such as the rapidly expanding railway companies (Gronn, 1999). The assumption within this era was that leadership could be learnt. Once proficiency, or achievement, could be shown, leadership positions then became open to applicants from any social strata.

Murphy (1993) indicated that the scientific management movement prevailed during this time and training focussed on the mechanical aspects of administration. Educational leadership lessons were largely drawn from practice and many trainers were previously superintendents or principals. Efficiency was a strong keyword within courses. Measurement, surveys, time/cost analysis and standardised operating procedures were seen as elements of good educational management. These methods, mirroring some of Taylor's scientific management ideas of the early 1900's, focussed on the 'how' of leadership, and rarely on the 'why' (Gronn, 2002).

Some countries were quick to follow this North American trend. For example, in Australia the Institute of Industrial Management was founded in Melbourne in 1941. Other countries, such as those in Europe, were slower to follow this trend. As late as 1958 the prestigious French Business School, INSTEAD, was just emerging from a culture solidly driven by classical leadership training (Gronn, 1999).

Some disillusionment with scientific management followed and the 1940's to 1970's was a time of the rise in the behavioural sciences (Hallinger, 1991). Behavioural science had the promise of a solid theory to protect the quality of training. The contention was that the behavioural sciences gave a rigorous deductive theory base from which the principal could navigate his or her way through issues in schools. The behavioural sciences also carried the status of the prominent academics that would control training from the 1950's to the 1970's (Murphy, 1993; Gronn, 2002).

These programmes flourished. In the United States the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration was set up across five universities (Gronn, 2002). By the 1980's, 400 graduate school programs were available to prepare school leaders for licensing requirement. These often took the form of a Masters Degree (Gronn, 2002).

However, this theory based movement seemed to soon reach some practical boundaries. Some damning reports on the failure of US schools and growing academic criticism of the singular method of training helped sponsor a change of attitude (Gronn, 2002). Griffiths (1997) has long argued for theoretical pluralism, that is that the search for one encompassing theory should be abandoned.

By the mid 1970's the effective school movement had begun. Based on the issue of increasing accountability, the principal was perceived to be a major force in school improvement. However, due to a scarcity in research, training was often seen to be limited and possibly ineffective. In the United States, Gronn (2002) and Murphy (1993) both contended that this time was characterised by the influence of groups such as the University Council for Educational Administration. This council was noted for its work on shaping professional standards of performance for administrators.

At this time, in Australia, some academics were proposing that distinct models (or recipes) of behaviour helped a principal achieve positive results in their school. Writers such as Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989) were advocating the use of models such as Collaborative School Management. This cycle, based on a sequence of policy development, goal setting, planning, budgeting, action and review, was touted as a tool that would help bring a “ ... vision of excellence to reality” (Beare et al, 1989, p.149).

During the 1970's and 80's the United States witnessed a huge increase in the number of educational doctoral course available (Murphy, 1993). Academic specialists generally taught these courses. Students self selected themselves and they usually studied on a part-time basis. At the same time large-scale curriculum reform was seen as a necessary building block in improving student outcomes. The emphasis in

leadership training then began to involve such issues as change management and implementation of external innovations.

By the 1980's and 1990's educational leadership training seemed firmly centred in the applied sciences. Writers were alluding to the multiple perspectives that needed to be brought to any one problem-solving situation. Everard (1986) noted that management was many sided and the thoughts of Schwab (1986), from 1964, were in vogue, using his multiple perspectives approach .

Gronn characterised this need for flexible, context dependent, leadership training through the term “customisation” (Gronn, 1999, p.46). Reports in Australia such as ‘Enterprising Nation’ (Karpin Report) highlighted the need for a complex web of training skills. These included strategic, entrepreneurial, global, soft, and teamwork orientated management training (Gronn, 1999, p.62).

Generic, cross-industry management standards were also in vogue during the 1990's in Australia. These focussed on self-paced adult learning often with a workplace competency assessment segment (Gronn, 2002). This practical orientation to training was supported by Hallinger and Murphy (1991) who advocated an application of skills and knowledge in a clinical situation through a professional degree structure rather than a research degree structure.

At this same time, Karpin acknowledged the pressure for a more business orientated curriculum theme that would reflect the new competitive image of schools in Australia. He acknowledged that Australia's schools needed to include enterprise and entrepreneurship subjects to lay a base for future managerial careers (Gronn, 1999, p.62).

A focus on outcomes was becoming increasingly important and writers such as Huber and West (2002, p.3) argued that a "transactional" (often managerial) leadership style was what was now expected. Efficiency and conformity were valued, as was operating within existing structures. This period was characterised by training based on competencies. These competencies were often a mix of academic theory, practical need and cultural/context expectations. Change was a key feature of the climate and principal training was focussed on leadership and management that was customised to changes in the client and the system. Whilst flexibility was 'permitted' in this era, concerns were raised that customisation still involved inherent weaknesses of designer leadership or leadership by design (Gronn, 2002). In other words, the recipe mentality still pervaded. Implicit was the message that if the current leader followed the current recipe then excellent leadership would follow in their work context.

Toward the end of the 1990's some western democracies were beginning to question their leadership formation processes. Again, these questions were sometimes linked to measures of system

performance on the world stage. In the United Kingdom the Blair government was concerned about falling student outcomes (Barber, 2001). The formation of a National College for School Leadership (N.C.S.L.) was mooted to help develop leaders who would be capable of generating a major cultural change within schools. A reform agenda was articulated where “transformational” leadership would be required (Barber, 2001; Huber & West, 2002). Rather than a focus on efficiency and management, the transformational leader creates change based on transforming the school culture. These changes affect people’s relationships, feelings, attitudes and beliefs. Transformational leaders work to change structures and people (Huber & West, 2002). Such radical change and strategic reform were argued, by Barber (2001), to be necessary to improve how the English education system was performing.

The United Kingdom response was to choose to mandate a set of key criteria for principal training, including key outcomes, professional knowledge and understanding, skills and attributes, and key areas of headship (strategy, teaching and learning, staff, resource deployment and accountability) (Gronn, 2002). All aspiring, new and substantive principals would be engaged in mandatory funded courses focussed on needs of each candidate, mentored by a private enterprise partner and focussed on building computer technology skills.

The United States had moved during the 1990's to a similar position, by adopting standards for principals. These standards were the offspring of a wide consultation between various study groups and the 50 strong network of universities comprising the U.C.E.A.. The standards included vision, school culture, organization management, stakeholder relations, ethics, and external contexts. By late 2000, 35 states had adopted the standards and many were developing an associated licensure assessment based on them (Gronn, 2002).

Since the year 2000 in one Australian state, Tasmania, a similar set of competencies was developed and used to accredit aspiring and substantive principals. These competencies were also being used as a basis for training. The ownership of these competencies was jointly held through the Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.), comprising a University, the state Department of Education and several professional principal associations (Tasmanian Principals Institute, 2000, *Principal Competency Profile*).

As with the Taylorist theory movement, however, it is possible to speculate that current movements towards standardised competency based assessment and training regimes for principals may have the effect of standardising legitimate practise. As Gronn (2002) warned, previous meritocratic regimes have been criticised as being prejudicial to minorities and erode the potential for diversity in professional training.

History tends to indicate that principal training has been very culture specific and has only undergone major shifts, over time, in response to changes in schools and or in response to the deemed inadequacy of the prior training regime. Leithwood et al (1987, p.189) encapsulated this dilemma when they wrote, "...Roles and responsibilities of school leaders have traditionally been shaped by what is happening in schools, not the reverse." and "...the quality and effectiveness of leadership training is limited by the existing knowledge base". Similarly Cibulka and Mawhinney (1995, p.525) issued a timely warning for researchers to construct better theories of educational administration, and, " ...take care not to replicate the errors of past decades. [using technical rationalist models]".

Finally, before turning to some observations on educational leadership training programs and an outline of international and Australian trends in the professional development of principals, it may be worth considering a different perspective to our current situation in regard to principal training. Brighouse (2002, p.1) argued strongly that today's principals needed to be "passionate". He maintained that principals needed intellectual curiosity, unwarranted optimism, an absence of self-pity, an excellent sense of humour, enormous energy and a belief in students' capacity to achieve. It may appear that here is another equally important set of competencies that historically have received little mention in the literature in principal training.

In summary of this historical overview of some of the influences on principal training, the professional development of principals has rarely been lead by a future needs focus. Rather, programs have often responded to social or political needs of the time, often following ideas or theories from other areas or disciplines. This situation may have reflected the scarcity of quality research on educational leadership that has only appeared in recent decades. It may appear that current programs are addressing the tensions of management versus leadership and political / economic forces versus educational needs of citizens. However more often than not it would appear that the driving forces behind program initiation may significantly define program design.

2.2 Some Thinking on Educational Leadership Training Programs

Smith and Piele (1997) undertook a comprehensive scan of the characteristics of good leaders in modern schools. They determined that four essential characteristics typified good leaders: they were intelligent, technically skilful, held basic values and were good thinkers; they were people orientated; they were of good character and; they were largely self-taught through experience. This experience element was noted by Fullan (1998, p.10) who captured its power in a simple sentence, “ It is the walking that beats the path... not the path that makes the walk.”

A number of attempts have been made to analyse what is needed to prepare principals to meet such characteristics of good leaders. Four examples follow. First, Leithwood et al. (1994) reported on a comprehensively structured leadership training program that involved two distinct strands and strategies; leadership for the high ground and leadership for the swamp. The swampy ground referred to problems where the school leader has very little knowledge regarding how to accomplish the goal. High ground problems were those where school leaders were well informed, knew the goals and had established procedures to deal with the problem. Clearly, swampy problems for one person could be high ground problems for another, dependent on prior experiences and skills. However, Leithwood et al. (1994) argued that in future schools, swampy problems would not disappear. From Australia, Duignan (1997) similarly acknowledged the swampy elements of the principal's world. He maintained that navigating chaos and uncertainty was expected and was only possible with a core set of values and attitudes. Duignan (1997, p. 33 – 35) alluded to the “greyness” of some problems and the non-linear fuzzy relationships (swampyness) between parts of many systems.

Second, Glatter (1986) considered that effective leadership development must take into account four key elements. He thought that programs must have adequate time for learning, ample scope for reflective learning, a focus on concrete situations, and involve an

application of learning in collaboration with colleagues. Given these learning needs, Glatter outlined four key leadership requirements:

- a well reasoned view of the social and educational task as a solid frame of reference for day to day issues;
- courage and judgement connected to leading individuals and groups of varying sizes;
- a close working knowledge of their external environment to enable innovative use of these features for school improvement; and,
- be able to work in many modes including political, collegial, cultural and analytical.

Third, Cave and Wilkinson (1991) conducted some research that attempted to identify key aspects of managerial capability. Rather than accepting the competence models of leadership they opted for a focus group investigation technique to probe deeply into the workings of effective leadership. They concluded that effective leaders had prerequisite knowledge and skills, however more importantly they knew how to appropriately use these attributes in leadership situations. Four distinct important aspects were then suggested for further research as key skills for future principals in the United Kingdom included: an ability to read the situation was important (being alert and receptive, keeping the antennae out); using balanced judgement (weighing pros and cons in times of conflict and crisis); using intuition (consulting our

thinking using emotions and feelings); and using political acumen (cultivating allies, bargaining and timing, using public forums).

Fourthly, Murphy (1993) conducted research of nine exemplary leadership programs in the United States during the early 1990's. He concluded that in the next millennium excellent programs would need to reflect several key design elements:

- rigour in candidate selection (conscious of diversity in race and ethnicity), and rigour in values and course expectations;
- to reflect collaborative work processes (at faculty administration level and student course level);
- have currency of program content reflecting the importance of moral, social and cultural issues;
- to reflect a pragmatic vision developed at the institutional level, so that lecturers live these philosophical foundations;
- an ethical dimension, so that leaders can develop a consciousness on which to lock down the many decisions they are required to make;
- a social context, investigating the nature of their society so that issues of equity and excellence regardless of race, ethnicity, gender or economic status can be involved in the principal's thought processes;
- a reflective and critical inquiry approach, reflecting the needs of the critically reflective principal who should continually test assumptions;

- to involve practice based learning, utilising methods such as internships, shadowing and interviewing principals, field based learning in discrete school projects/programs, and completing applied dissertations for qualifications;
- a close connection between practice and academic sections of the profession, to enable both partners to have experience in and be conscious of the theory and hands-on aspects of the administrators role;
- to reconfigure program structure through using (a) the cohort class structure that promotes community, collaboration academic rigour and personal experiences, (b) robust time frames such as release days, weeks or internship and remove the ineffective after work structures, (c) revised course formats based on a core of current essential learnings, (d) more powerful instructional strategies that encourage questioning, use of expert practitioners and teaming with allied faculty, (e) close monitoring and evaluation procedures, and (f) faculty teachers who view themselves as generalists not discipline based specialists;
- to be strongly ethical, so that candidates could become leaders who were humane and ethical social critics; and
- to empower students, to reflect the needs of adult learners and utilise the learnings of adult students within the course work.

Several distinct elements permeate such thinking, including: adult and transformation learning; time, context and gender; interpersonal skills; teamwork and group dynamics; emotions and ethics. Other research

helps confirm the importance of such elements in effective principal training as well as the importance of a variety of modes of delivery. This research is summarised under nine headings: adult learning; teamwork; time, context, gender; transformational learning; interpersonal skills; emotions; ethics; group development; and modes of training-including internship and mentoring.

2.2.1 Adult learning

It may be useful to reflect on the work of Loevinger when considering the training of principals in the context of them as adult learners (Loevinger, 1976, p.24-25). He contended that four stages of ego development characterise adult learners, “Self protective opportunistic, Conformist, Conscientious, and Autonomous”. These four stages may be useful when considering the motives that principals and aspiring principals bring to their training process. At the two highest levels candidates may approach the training agenda from quite different reference points. The conscientious student may be better suited to a programmed learning approach where they aim to achieve high-level competence at skills and tasks based on rational inquiry whereas the autonomous pupil may aim for a deep understanding of systems, based on negotiated study with a view to developing powerful transformational skills.

Whilst it is not expected that candidates move through these four stages in a linear fashion, the four stages may be evident at different times in

different training situations. Richardson and Prickett (1994) noted similar personal differences between adult learners who were training to become principals. They concluded that principal educators needed to be aware that adult students needed very flexible (timing, pace and style) programs dependent on issues such as age. Similarly, they stated that adult learners often had a core belief in personal learning, they learnt best when orientated around life situations, analysis of experience was crucial, and that mutual inquiry was a powerful learning mode.

2.2.2 Teamwork

Effective leadership in many school settings involves teamwork be it leadership of teams or, leadership through teams (OECD, 2001). The interweaving of either leadership teams in training programs or team dynamics as a part of principal professional development would seem to be crucial. Professional development that focuses on simply developing the skills of the individual with limited interaction with wider teams and groups may be likely to have little transference potential to real school settings.

Shared leadership and shared vision development notions support the need for team approaches in training. Indeed, Bush (2002) noted that a participative approach to leadership development may also mitigate against a possible tendency of the transformational leader to manipulate followers!

2.2.3 Time, Context, Gender

Some writers have argued the importance of factors such as time, context and age of course participant. For example, Wylie's (1999) research in New Zealand highlighted the need for principal professional development to be sympathetic to time and context. Given the rapid devolutionary process in New Zealand during the late 1980's Wylie suggested that the principal's interpersonal skills were now paramount. Principals in New Zealand identified facilitation, motivation, guidance and advice to boards of trustees, pastoral care, and marketing as essential components of the new principal's role. Similarly Gronn (2003) noted that whilst leadership programs may appear similar in structure, for example competency based programs in the United States and the United Kingdom, they can evolve quite differently due to cultural reasons.

Wicks (no date) summarised some of the leadership characteristics needed of principals working with indigenous populations in Canada, Australia and New Zealand. He concluded that these communities required principals to have a firmly related view of their schools. Concepts of family ties, fairness, community involvement, the power of the indigenous meta culture, and shared power pervaded the work of the principal. Maintaining the local culture whilst reconciling it with wider society was seen as a key aim for principals. In these settings the

cultural emotional intelligence of principals was seen as a key attribute in a holistic system view of the school and the community.

Macpherson and Caldwell (1992) researched the aspects of age, educational sector, principal level and gender with respect to principal training. They found that a search of the literature revealed no evidence to warrant distinctions to be made between different types of professional development based on these three factors.

However, Grady et al (1994) found some clear gender differences in association with professional development. This Australian study team found that female principals tended to belong to more professional associations and to subscribe to more professional journals than men. Similarly, they found that principals of exclusively secondary schools tended to belong to more professional associations.

2.2.4 Transformational Learning

In the effective training of our educators it may be that we have to aim for a transforming, autonomous leadership outcome. As Mulford (1998) pointed out, whilst transforming should possibly be the target, many challenges are inherent. He acknowledged that transformations require greater energy and time to break established patterns, they require the conscious examination of unconscious meanings and values and they need to be tested in safe environments in order to reduce the level of threat to the learner.

Evans (2001) found similar hurdles for authentic transformational change. He concluded that students of educational leadership needed to develop new meanings through understanding and attachment. New meanings had to be constructed in a coherent predictable pattern and needed to be welded to a deep change in values and attitudes before the learner became transformed. It could be argued that new meanings of the depth that Evans advocates would need to involve time (not haste), dialogue with others and practise in a real context.

2.2.5 Interpersonal skills

Mulford, Fisher and Grady (1991) have argued for a pragmatic, functional approach to leadership building. They contended that a functional approach to leadership would enable leaders to establish a meaningful personal vision for their practice – a vision that would clarify organisational values and assist in leading a learning community.

Whilst the functional approach to leadership may be important, it presumes that the principal has excellent interpersonal skills. Some writers contend that whilst a principal's personal vision is important, the skills to assimilate this vision into a community vision are more critical. It is possible then, that some prerequisite communication skills may be necessary before an effective principal training course can be embarked upon. Further, the ability of a principal to develop trust in

teachers (and community) as well as trust teachers to engage in change is seen as an important factor in the transformational leader (Murphy and Seashore Louis, 1994; Mulford et al., 2000; and Bishop, 1998). Furthermore, researchers in this area contended that it is important for the principal to let go of old role scripts to allow the creation of new ones that match changing contextual and social environments.

Many studies of the principal's role highlight the importance of the interpersonal dimension (for example, Mulford, 1984 and Silins et al., 1999). As one consequence it would seem reasonable that these essential interpersonal skills be developed in a dynamic human training environment as opposed to, say, externally programmed individual distance mode training.

Bolman and Deal (1994) considered that leadership is primarily a political activity. Leaders were often expected to use their interpersonal skills to bring conflicting points of view into alignment (designing, building and negotiating) to create a productive organisation. Leithwood (1994) also emphasised this personal dimension of good leadership. He considered that trust and loyalty are prime foundations for good leadership. The principal's day-to-day routines, intellectual stimulation and individualised support of staff were key elements of the development of a participative vision process in schools.

Southworth (2000) identified a culture of collaboration as being an essential aspect of the web of interactions that help define a learning school. His implicit focus on the importance of interpersonal skills is included in the four beliefs that he distilled as building blocks for collaboration: valuing individuals; fostering and focussing on groups; generating a sense of mutual security; and openness.

2.2.5 Emotions

Research by Day et al. (2000), undertaken in the United Kingdom indicated that in today's dynamic and complex educational environment that an interpersonal people-centred training focus is paramount. Day et al contended that in post-transformational schools effective leaders placed purposes, values and commitments at an apex. The school staff, students and parents gave service to the higher values. The study concluded that effective leaders were continually managing several competing tensions and dilemmas as well as at all times being people-centred. Moreover, they maintained that effective principals needed an intelligent head and an intelligent heart. Day et al. (2000), thought that the work of Goleman, concerning emotional intelligence, might provide an effective theoretical construct for these emerging skills. Indeed, Cookson and Schneider (1995) in their book, *Transforming Schools*, alluded to a new paradigm of thinking about educational change. After discrediting many reform efforts over several decades they concluded that current assumptions about reform being a

rational process needed to be seriously challenged and perhaps abandoned.

Evans (1996) supported this emotional underpinning of the principal understanding the personal aspects of change when he indicated that the leader must use his/her skills to target both task performance and emotional adjustment in times of change. Evans (1996) advised school leaders to be well aware of the feeling of loss and grief that can be found in change agendas in schools.

Murphy and Seashore Louis (1994) thought that the modern principal must have skills that allow conflicts to surface (rather than be a conflict resolver constantly), so that issues could be addressed to allow reform to move forward. They saw the principal as a head teacher, allowing a community to work through issues, helping people see possibilities, confront barriers and develop their own solutions and visions.

Using a focus group research methodology, Cave and Wilson (1991) synthesised four necessary capacities for the new principalship that may be linked with Goleman's emotional intelligences, in so much as they rely on a rich knowledge of human behaviour. They decided that leadership needed to consider the human and spiritual dimensions of people. They suggested that leaders needed to be very self-aware and know their own strengths, weaknesses, limitations and feelings. This self-knowledge could be vital to constituting a vigorous complementary

management team in a school. These writers resound with a theme of interconnectedness and wholeness - in contrast to rational constructions that have sometimes emphasised deconstruction of leadership into constituent parts.

Interestingly, this view clashes somewhat with some previous writers. Hallinger and Murphy (1991), for example, had the notion of new leadership courses being based on application of clinical skills that build into a sequential body of knowledge and skills. They seriously advocated that new principals should look at professional degree courses (Ed.D.) rather than research based Ph.D. courses.

This important paradox, the clash between a view that tends to disaggregate principal skills into characteristics and small sub units compared with other researchers who advocate a global interdisciplinary holistic type of approach to leadership development, was highlighted by Bredeson (2002). Bredeson indicated that the current United States interest on Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (I.S.L.L.C.) standards for school leaders could create an atomisation of the role of the leader akin to trying to "...put Humpty Dumpty together again" (2002, p.407). He suggested that careful instructional design was needed to avoid simple recipe type learnings that may have little relevance in the complex work contexts of many principals.

Interestingly, Burford, (no date) also painted a picture of the modern principal as being an expert in interconnected emotional intelligence. Burford maintained that in a world dominated by conflicts, paradoxes, change, chaos and uncertainty, some central tenants were needed to secure and guide the work of the principal.

Burford (no date, p.15) maintained that leaders needed to exhibit, "...intellectualism, artistry, spirituality, moral confidence, subsidiarily and emotional intelligence". He thought that leaders needed to value human relations as sacred, understand others, develop a tangible culture based on curriculum, celebrations and heroes, exercise wise judgement and value social capital so that all school community members were empowered.

2.2.6 Ethics

Ethical responsibilities and decision making roles have become a key aspect of the principal's role, especially in a site based situation. Dempster's (2002) research in Queensland, Australia indicated that principals felt a strong need for professional development in this area, indeed 72% of the 25 principals surveyed indicated that they had no training in this area at all. Principals recognised that attributes such as interpersonal skills, empathy, ability to recognise ethical issues, reasoning and logic skills, knowledge of ethical issues and knowledge of laws were all key ingredients of ethical decision making skills. Interactive workshops, face to face delivery and mentoring were seen

as effective delivery modes for this aspect of the principal's professional learning.

2.2.7 Group Development

As transformational learning, developing interpersonal skills and understanding the importance and place of the emotions is most likely to take place in groups, some knowledge of group processes would seem likely to be useful to the professional development designer.

Mulford (2004) recognised that groups in training undergo reasonably predictable evolutions in-group dynamics and that program designers need to be aware of these changes so that a more productive training agenda can be realised. He found that groups commonly move from a forming stage to a storming stage, then to a norming stage and only then to a performing stage (where creative, safe, problem solving can occur). Other stages include transforming where the group moves beyond doing the same thing well. This stage is termed dorming, where the group 'rests on its oars' to cope with sustained pressure and mourning, when a group is about to break up and the members reassert their independence from the group.

2.2.8 Modes of Training – including Internship and Mentoring

Burgoyne (1976) identified several powerful training modes from outside of education. These modes included "being taught", "modelling" (copying a respected other), "planned discovery" (learning

from an experience planned to produce learning), “vicarious discovery” (learning from the observation of others’ success and failure) and “discussion” (usually with other participants in a similar situation)”. He suggested that these elements might be applicable to the training of principals.

Burgoyne and Stuart (1977) differentiated eight different learning program styles. They equated these to successful managerial performance goals often espoused in training goals. They found that experiential (acknowledging the affective side of people as well as the intellectual side in subjectively real situations), social influence (role playing and processes addressing the self image) and pragmatic learning theories (learning by choosing the most common sense approach and embedding experience) were most closely allied to (higher transformational) goals involving pro-activity, creativity, mental agility and balanced learning habits.

The possibility of using facilitators expert in the use of film and video media was mooted by Bolman and Deal (1994) as the breadth of skills required by leaders broached the historic boundaries of simple management theory and educational pedagogy. They cited one successful professional leadership training system that incorporated philosophers, museum experts, psychologists and psychics into their training team.

Leithwood (1987) argued that some principal training elements could be taught directly (such as classroom observation), others probably needed significant experiential components (such as decision making) and others may not be able to be taught (such honesty and sincerity). Bolman and Deal (1994) pointed out that learning derives from both positive and negative experiences and that failure and triumphs can both teach us about leadership.

Glatter (1983, p.104) acknowledged that situational learning modes (out of the individual's own school) seem to have some impact on learning. In this group he included internships, exchanges and planned study visits.

Internships (or other situational learning modes) would seem to be one effective method to prepare candidates for the principalship (Ribbons et al, 1991). Indeed internship may be viewed as the closest approximation to real life learning, apart from actually doing the role in a permanent salaried capacity. However, it would seem that internships need to be structured to involve actual challenge, rather than a simple observation of how someone else operates. Actually doing the job would seem more likely to challenge values and lead to transformational change.

Schmuck (1993) reported on a well-designed and organised two-year preparation program for principals in Oregon that included a significant

mentoring/internship element. The internship lasted for one year (mid course) and was designed to be half a full time load in a school leadership position with five additional two-day (weekend) reflective mentoring sessions spaced across the year. Fifteen candidates completed this internship requirement out of twenty-five. Schmuck noted that many internships had failed in other programs because of the range of factors listed below. The Oregon internship program recognised these pitfalls. Candidate evaluation post course indicated that the internship was a successful element of the two-year program.

- insufficient time span;
- lack of collaboration between field and university supervisors;
- lack of planning to link theory and practice;
- insufficient attention to candidates' emotional development and social support during internship; and,
- lack of real mentoring that is support in an equalitarian and collegial relationship.

Hickcox and House (1991) distilled some key considerations for internship programs, which have been part of the Canadian experience for over fifteen years. They considered that the on site mentor or supervisor should be first-rate (and trained in mentoring) and that a dialogue should occur between mentor and intern about the content and intent of the experience. They cautioned that internships are expensive training methods and that a thorough review of their effectiveness was

needed (presumably at research level and at individual experience level). Similarly, Crow (2002) acknowledged that mentoring was a critical element of the internship relationship. He warned that mentors should be well trained and be aware of the intense interpersonal aspect of their role. Additionally mentors should be capable of providing guidance, teaching and challenge to the protégé as well as enabling the planned curriculum to develop with input from a variety of other people in the school or context. Crow was also concerned that mentors need to be able to 'let go' when appropriate, be continuously reflective about their own behaviour and that of the intern and be available to sponsor the intern in the wider community.

Despite an apparent scarcity of information on effective internships Crow (2002) identified that early chunking or staggering of tasks helped the mentor develop a sense of the variety of roles of the leader. Similarly the mentor needed to be aware of the possible development stages of the internee. From initial contact (role definition, comparison to previous position) to liminal (some apprehension and possible grief, cautious), to settling in (early acceptance, mentor relationship becomes more open, less task orientated), to efficacy (confident, creative and mutual respect shown) to independent (mentor and internee are co learners, learning concludes, some feelings of impending loss).

In some states of the United States, where a postgraduate qualification was a prerequisite or preference for admission into application for a

principalship, internship has been a course component. Lane (1984, p.60) considered the benefit of internships “unquestionable”. These internships linked university study with actual practise and often required 150 to 300 contact hours linked to a research task. Similarly West-Burnham (2002) advocated the importance of reflection when considering profound learning. He maintained that the most powerful basis for learning was supported reflection, noting that this could be achieved through:

- mentoring and coaching;
- reflective journals;
- structured reading; and,
- or peer review and feedback on actual practise.

However, Milstein (1993, p.198-199) cautioned that internships need to involve experience in challenging situations, multiple experiences in different sites and levels, well-trained mentors, and reflective review time.

Gronn (1999) also provided strong cautions in the area of internship and/or mentoring. He foresaw that some key problems could include:

- mentors becoming sponsors with associated material, emotional costs to the trainee;
- the close mentoring relationship that could actually stifle and intimidate the trainee; and,

- the problem where the mentor may also be responsible for the assessment or career opportunities of the trainee.

These warnings may indicate the need for closely supervised and structured mentoring programs to ensure that they become effective. The research of Kram (1985) indicated that mentors typically progress through four stages, initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. Ackerman et al (2002) considered that the mental attitude of the mentoring leader was perhaps the most important aspect to the success and longevity of the mentoring / internship relationship. They stated:

If all respective parties saw themselves as guardians of growth of leadership, they would take seriously their own roles in mentoring aspiring leaders and current leaders to travel well in the fluid and changing environments where educational leadership of all kinds takes place. (Ackerman et al. , 2003, p.1144).

In summary, this discussion on educational leadership training programs poses some dilemmas for the professional development program designer. As was argued earlier, the skills and abilities needed for the modern principal are complex and changing, are not necessarily grounded in one theory base, are challenging to learn, and require powerful teaching styles to effect transformations in adult students. Smith and Piele (1997) noted these problems when they stated that our

new creative principals would need excellent psychological balance, social orientation, as well as initiative.

Whilst researchers will possibly never agree on the 'correct' formula for designing effective principal training programs, some strong themes are evident. Indeed, given that the 'correct' formula would appear to need to be sympathetic to time, context, culture and a host of other variables, a summary frame-work of themes or characteristics may best describe the current state-of-the-art in effective principal professional development. Possible themes/structures/practises in such a framework would include:

- Possibly considering the competencies inherent in the principalship role whilst recognising the interrelated , holistic, vision centred nature of the total role. A careful acknowledgement of the cultural, historical and political framework that has preceded and created the current operating environment for the program.
- A possible rigorous pre course individual review of the capacities of the inductee, including , learning styles, emotional intelligences, trust and loyalty frameworks, communication skills and motivation levels and derivatives.
- Be strongly grounded in a personal review of values and ethics;
- Acknowledge the spaced nature of some adult learning and flexibility inherent in course structures.
- Acknowledge the role that high level interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence skills play in the principal's role.

- Experience and real world, action orientated problem-solving approaches used as powerful learning tools.
- Involve supervised internships as a very efficient means of learning, despite the associated dollar costs.
- Include authentic, challenging problem-solving experiences in groups leading to better understanding of theoretical ideas and values.
- Mentoring and critical review seem to encourage deeper understanding of the principalship.
- Use team based, group-learning processes to assist in the program design.

With such powerful learning aims, and such a critical consumer group, the challenge has certainly been set to create effective principal training programs! Chapman (1991, p.32-33) may have indirectly described the challenge of effective principal training when she described the principal's role in our turbulent post industrial, information age:

[The principal will need to] grapple with complex realities and difficult substantive issues, enable groups to work through dilemmas of direction and purpose, act in ambiguous conditions, keep their organisation flexible, maintain responsive relationships with partners and clients, handle the anxieties inherent in collaborative relationships, link visions with organisation to realise them and continually struggle with the values embedded in their technical expertise.

2.3 International Trends in the Professional Development of Principals

As we shall see in the examples of international programs in the professional development of principals that are to follow, many countries are creating training to enable principals to be effective in an uncertain future. These developments continue to occur despite the advice of a piece of wisdom found in a fortune cookie and noted by Murphy and Louis (1994, p.279) that, "Prediction is a difficult art, especially regarding the future."

Examples of developments in principal training will be described from the Canada, United States, the Netherlands, United Kingdom, Sweden, France, Spain, Germany, Singapore, Hong Kong, China, and New Zealand before turning to developments in Australia.

Finally some generalisations will be drawn from the earlier literature review as well as these different contexts.

2.3.1 Canada

In 1987, Leithwood (1987) synthesised the major components needed in an effective principal professional development program. These elements were:

- A knowledge base in philosophy, management, curriculum design, teaching and learning and personal evaluation;
- On the job components;

- An awareness that candidates often have no previous training for the position;
- A preference for peer training;
- A need for informal verbal components;
- The potential of internships; and,
- Universities could only supply the intellectual component of training; - practical training was also required.

Seven years later Leithwood et al. (1994) described an interesting two-strand model for professional development of the future principal. In developing this model they considered that 'high ground' leadership should involve a problem solving instructional processes based on interpretation, goal setting, values clarification, constraints, solution processes and affect. The program design for this strand drew on research concerning brain function, adult learning, instructional techniques, and social interaction theory. While university faculty designed the program, it was delivered via flexible mode by practising school leaders. The course involved a practicum (internship) component and was completed by most candidates over two years (part time). Preparation for the second strand, or the 'swamp', involved a focussed sequence of problem solving instruction sessions. 'Swamp' problems involved learning new strategic techniques utilising metacognitive thinking models. The course involved nine problems (graded in complexity) and used current theory that defined thirteen conditions for the development of useful strategic knowledge. These

thirteen conditions were woven into the fabric of each day where one problem was debriefed and another was approached using a variety of learning strategies. It would appear that the success of this program might have formed the basis for a more recent formal professional development program (see below).

Since 1993 Ontario has used a leadership profile as a basis for professional development of principals. Begley (2000) acknowledged that possibly the best original leadership profile was developed by Leithwood and Montgomery in 1983/4 (Leithwood & Montgomery, 1986). Leithwood and Montgomery's profile identified four hierarchical levels of leadership effectiveness and elaborated these along another behavioural dimension involving decision-making, goals, factors and strategies. Whilst this original profile was based on exhaustive research in the areas of leadership and effective schools, Begley's (2000) team chose to approach their profile development from exhaustive personal inventory surveys, using a grounded research methodology. The Canadian profile rested strongly on the notion of principals being involved in an effective cognitive apprenticeship. Cognitive apprenticeship relied on gaining situated knowledge through a collaborative social construction of knowledge and skills.

The Canadian profile (Begley, 2000) could be described as multi-dimensional. Five key dimensions of school leadership were used, Manager, Program Leader and Learning Facilitator, School-Community

Facilitator, Visionary, and Problem Solver. These dimensions were further broken down into sub dimensions, for instance the Problem Solver role was broken into Problem Interpretation, Goals and Values, and Solution Processes. Each sub-dimension was then descriptively expanded into behavioural statements. These statements reflected the possible leadership actions of a novice up to a mature leader. For example, the leader as a manager in the regulations and policy arena may have demonstrated action based on an awareness of how policy affects their school. In contrast to more mature activity whereby the leader actively sought to influence policy and creatively used policy to enhance the school vision, goals and priorities.

Begley (2000) identified particular development growth strands that permeate the Canadian profile including growth, from reactive to proactive responses, from personal preference reliance to a sensitivity to accommodate many influences, from fixed procedure adherence to conceptual/philosophical fidelity, from in school focus to greater community focus and from limited to broad repertoire strategies.

The Canadian profile would appear to have been a well-grounded and well-researched approach to structuring a professional development program for school leaders. Its strength lay in the ease in which it could be locally contextualised and the developmental nature of its sub strands. Begley (2000) however warned strongly against using a profile

as summative assessment tool and alerted the reader to its short shelf life of about five years.

2.3.2 United States

Perhaps due to sheer size of the country, examples of current principal training and professional development in the United States abound in the literature. Many universities still offer certified principalship courses for aspiring candidates to the profession. Other training regimes seem to focus on the growth of serving principals.

One glaring omission seems to be evident in the literature from the United States. Scant reference is made to the actual impacts or potential causal links between the training of principals and effectiveness of schools or indeed student outcomes. Evaluation is often limited to the personal reflections of participants as an indirect measure of the effectiveness of the training or the effectiveness of change in the school setting. One possible reason for any direct review of training effectiveness would be the possible lag time between training principals and consequent organisational change(s), followed (later) by student learning changes.

Schmuck (1993) carefully analysed a successful principal preparation course implemented in Oregon in 1988. This course involved many of the principles alluded to by Leithwood in 1987. The course was conducted over two years with twenty-five participants. The first year

consisted of seven weekend institutes conducted by a team that always included university professors and practising administrators. The institutes focussed on team building, trust, school culture, conflict resolution, leading people, creating a change climate and curriculum change. A variety of adult learning strategies were employed in the institutes. At the conclusion of year one, candidates went through a Principal Assessment Centre course that highlighted issues to be focussed on during the impending internship phase.

The major part of the second year required candidates to work half time in a mentored internship program as school leaders. Five, two-day reflective seminars interspersed the internship over ten months. Two summer schools were included in the program focussing on issues such as law, community relations, business, program evaluation and supervision.

Schmuck's (1993) analysis revealed that this program better prepared future leaders for job selection success and success in their first year as an administrator, compared to other control programs. The review also revealed that candidates considered that working in a cohort group, using university and practitioner teams, using a balance of management and leadership ideas, using an Assessment Centre to diagnose personal issues, using half time internships and developing a supportive network were all key success factors for the program.

In 1995, Crews and Weakley (1995) surveyed 15 educational leadership programs in southern states of the United States of America. They concluded that effective programs needed components that included, goal setting, long term interactive training, personal development planning, reflective thinking, coaching and mentoring, partnerships and collaboration, and comprehensive evaluation.

In 1996, Abbott (1996) noted that principals in New York were agreeing that a new skills profile was needed for the 21st Century. These skills included knowledge of best teaching methods, leadership, budgetary competence, networking skills, technological literacy, teaching communication, application of best leadership practises, conflict resolution skills, diversity skills, systems thinking, disciplines, and total quality management principles. This training scenario was used with 18 principals who worked in small teams focussing on one, two or three specific personal targets. Goals were set and indicators of achievement included working portfolios, empirical observations, self-reflective journals and written pre/post assessments. The training structure followed a Total Quality Management approach involving 4 key steps, Planning, Doing (collegial sharing), Study, and Action (review of actions taken during the year). Many participants found that three objectives were too many and suggested one goal per year cycle was sufficient. Individual goals were achieved and all participants considered the program a great improvement on previous mandated processes. However, no rigorous evaluation was undertaken involving

the research question, ‘Did this program stimulate change in the participants schools that translated into improved teaching or student outcomes?’

Mohr and Evans (1999, p.530) captured the potential problems, of the Abbott type of program, well. They stated,

Programs in school leadership abound. Participants often remember the workshops as stimulating and productive and assume that their own effectiveness will improve more or less automatically as a result of their attendance. Too often ... the principal returns to school with a few (fading) insights.

This dismal view of professional development for principals in the United States was shared by Daresh (2001, p.137) when summing up two key issues for the immediate future,

“First there is strong concern for the quality of professional development to prepare and support educational leaders. A second issue ... is the problem of finding a supply of individuals ... (for the role)”.

Mohr and Evans (1999) espoused seven basic principles to guide their training program. These were,

- Principals learning is personal and takes place most effectively in group situations.
- Principals foster more powerful faculty and student learning by focussing on their own learning.
- Student work samples were regularly used as a window into school culture and curriculum.
- Principals need to move beyond their own assumptions, often by reading challenging text articles.
- Focussed reflection takes time away from work, but is essential.
- Strong leadership is necessary for truly democratic learning. Leaders must listen carefully and then design the work for the group (group facilitation skills and feedback were emphasised).
- Rigorous planning (for the school setting) is essential for flexible and responsive implementation.
- New learning depends on protected dissonance.

Mohr and Evans (1999) indicated that this group training strategy was quite focussed on change. Indeed, one of their participant review questions directly enquired to links between the training and any perceived changes that had occurred in the work practises of participants in their school settings.

Mohr and Evans (1999) suggested that these structured peer principal training groups were very effective. Certainly they appeared to be focussed on the in-context needs of individual principals within a very supportive learning environment. Whilst the training was directed at

school improvement and change, no evidence was shown for actual achievement of this broad goal.

Several universities in the United States have offered school leadership courses. The University of Berkeley, California offered a program involving problem based study, an internship and conventional coursework (Principal Leadership Institute, 2000). This course was explicitly tailored for new generation school reform leaders in urban schools. Completion of the course earned candidates a Masters in Arts in Educational Leadership.

The Arizona State University (2000) offered a similar course leading to a Principal Certificate (K to 12). These courses acknowledged that successful performance by school administrators depended upon many factors. Consequently they based their program on competencies, specific skills demanded by the local education department and a set of option units. This course structure was designed to fit the individual needs of leaders and the system they worked in.

At the same time, California had a leadership academy, the California School Leadership Academy (C.S.L.A.) (2000) which was a cooperative venture between the state education department and a private training provider. The CSLA offered programs for aspiring principals and school leadership teams. These programs addressed seven core success indicators, including vision, standards based

accountability linked to curriculum and student accountability, culture building, communication to support learning, school learning teams, systems thinking, and promotion of multicultural and linguistic diversity-sensitive environments (CSLA Performance Indicators, 2000).

Some jurisdictions in the United States have taken the step of attempting to preselect future principal candidates and involve them in training programs. In Oregon, the STAR program orientated aspiring principals to the demands of instructional leadership, maintenance, and coordinating programs through after work classes. The second phase included a week long mentored work experience session, followed by a structured assessment centre evaluation. Candidates felt the program gave them an insight in to the principalship as well as allowing the district to assess possible future principals (Smith & Piele, 1997).

Leithwood (1995) reviewed the outcomes of the Danforth Program that involved cooperation between universities and local education districts over five years and across twenty two universities in the United States of America. Using a combination of expanded internships, mentoring, cohort groups and collaboration with local practitioners, many learners reported better integrated course work, enriched content and better instruction.

Muse and Randall reported on an internship program in Utah (1994). The internship involved selecting candidates for a 1400 hour course

made up of 4 days per week in mentored field work and one day per week in classes, seminars and problem orientated workshops. The placement of all graduates of the program, into leadership positions, during 1991-93 indicated that the program was successful.

Smith and Piele argued that an internship is very important so that candidates can get “behind the wheel” experience (Muse & Randall, 1997, p. 82).

Shipman advocated that some of the variation in quality of professional development programs in the United States could be largely overcome by a national focus on the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards for School Leaders (Shipman, 2001). Shipman considered that a standards based professional development approach that reflected widely accepted documents such as the proficiencies for Elementary and Middle school principals would help raise the overall quality of professional development. He acknowledged that rigorous selection of candidates, a sustained hands on applied approach, use of internships or practicums, liaison with universities that had staff with recent principal experience and authentic reflective assessments should be components of a typical program.

2.3.3 Netherlands

Huber described the Dutch education system as very decentralised (2001). The state provided central guidelines and schools were administered locally. Many training opportunities were available for

principals. One major programme, the N.S.O., was run by five universities. This competency based model involved 144 days and extensive projects and internships. A broad range of competencies are developed, culminating in a Master of Educational Management degree.

2.3.4 United Kingdom

In the early 1980's in the United Kingdom, many head teacher / school leadership programs were operating. Hegarty (1983) described the situation in the county of Surrey where all new headteachers were automatically required to attend training in the areas of leadership and delegation, interpersonal skills, communication, planning, professional development, decision making, community relationships and other topics requested by participants. This course was delivered annually and involved two two-day residentials and nine other full day sessions involving theory and reflection on practise. Hegarty noted that an end point structure involving (a) award bearing courses that would contribute to the long term career needs of candidates as well as (b) creating a network of non award bearing courses aimed at immediate issues affecting headteachers was being strongly proposed at this time.

In July 2000, the British Government mooted establishment of the National College for School Leadership (2000). The college was planned to be operational in late 2000 and to focus on three main target groups, aspiring headteachers, new headteachers and experienced

headteachers (or principals). Mentoring, professional exchanges, advanced teaching and learning methods, on line training and academic qualifications were several strategies suggested to underpin the training program. This initiative received strong financial backing, one hundred million pounds over three years, and was expected to involve a client group of 24000 headteachers.

Tomlinson described the new system as it matured and developed in 2001 (Tomlinson, 2002). The National Qualification for Headship was to become mandatory for all newly appointed headteachers (principals). It involved a rigorous application process identifying the applicants needs based on self assessment, reference and on line diagnosis. An access phase was available to applicants who needed grounding in areas of strategic school direction, achievement raising through teaching and learning, management of staff and resources and working with people (these areas were the four major criteria embedded in the National Standards for Headteachers). These courses were supported by two days of face to face training and extensive on line resources.

Core training in Phase 1, followed the access phase. Here candidates were arranged in tutor groups and an individual training plan was negotiated based on school improvement. School visits and face to face training were features of this phase. Assessment was based on a thorough review of the training plan, discussion about learning based

on a reflective journal, assessment of evidence about school development projects, and assessments of capability against the National Standards for Headteachers. It was envisaged that phase 1 would take several months at a minimum.

Phase 2, the final stage involved a 2 day residential focussing on vision and values, national priorities, core purposes, future schools and personal effectiveness. A final assessment day involved a number of exercises that reflect issues that headteachers regularly meet as well as an in depth personal interview with an assessor.

The Leadership Program for Serving Leaders (L.P.S.L.) began in 1998 (Tomlinson, 2002). This program involved a four day workshop followed by a one day evaluation workshop approximately one year later. It featured rigorous diagnostic questionnaires about models of excellence, leadership styles and school improvement. Staff and school governors were also asked to complete questionnaires about the principal. Headteachers brought school performance data to the training days also.

Questionnaire data was analysed and processed so that the first two days could provide high quality feedback to the head teacher about their performance. Headteachers were grouped with colleagues from other parts of the country and from different schools to encourage a confidential, neutral atmosphere in which to share expertise. The

second two days related mainly to school data, handling critical incidents and action planning on both personal and school levels. Complementary on-line course elements were produced to support areas of weakness that candidates may have had in their development plan and a leadership partners in business mentoring option was available to some participants. The on-line component was not readily accepted by participants, whereas the partner component was seen as quite valuable (although sometimes difficult to arrange).

Day (2000) had some concerns about the leadership program for serving leaders (L.P.S.L). He warned about a focus on clinical, commercial, competency based programs that ignored the values / ethics driven, passionate, human resource and social systems aspects of mature leadership that researchers had highlighted as being integral to effective leadership. Interestingly this aspect of the professional development of leaders was more apparent in the program aimed at new school leaders (Tomlinson, 2002).

2.3.5 Sweden

The Swedish School Leadership Program (S.L.P.) was active between 1976 and 1982. This program attracted many hundreds of participants. Of interest was that the program involved local politicians as trainers as well as extensive society orientated practise periods. In the practise periods, school leaders undertook different work experiences in their local community (Hegarty, 1983). The course work had a low emphasis

on academic content and administrative training, but was focussed more on developing personal communication skills and developing planning skills for the participants local school setting.

Participants engaged in a visioning process for their school and then a strategic planning process. The participants mapped aids and obstacles to their proposed change agenda and then evaluated a variety of solutions to their change issue. Interestingly, the mean age of participants was 50 years old (Hegarty, 1983).

The Swedish system became decentralised following a new National Curriculum proclaimed in 1994 (Johansson, 2001). Johansson maintained that the principals had a much more political role to play following decentralisation. With the need to guide a school board and influence classroom pedagogy, the principal's training program had a clear focus on democratic, learning orientated, communicative school leader development. At the time of writing the training program was being developed and its design elements included a 3 year timeframe, group work of 30 days duration, with an interplay between theory, research and practise, individual and group supervision, evaluation by personal portfolio, and the use of case studies.

2.3.6 France

The French system has been described as heavily centralised and with no middle management level (Huber, 2001, p.6). Entry to a full time

paid leadership course was by competitive selection and involved seminars, lectures and an extensive internship course. Completion of the course usually entitled the applicant to a deputy position in a school with further ongoing training. When the deputy (two year probation) phase was completed the applicant took up a school leadership position.

2.3.7 Spain

Hegarty (1983) clearly explained a linear professional development program for Spanish principals. The candidates embarked on a course of theoretical and reflective study in three key modules, Psychology of Management, School Organisation and, Analysis and Control of Teaching Quality. Each of these modules was subdivided into distinct subsections. Each subsection had a description of what that characteristic in an 'ideal' school setting would look like and the participant was able to give his or her own schools a weighted numerical score on each characteristic. At the conclusion of this exhaustive reflective exercise each principal could gain a general 'score' for their school (based on direct and indirect achievement indicators) and hence form a development strategy for school improvement. Gonzales-Tirados was the creator of this program and reported very positive feedback from 900 participants (Hegarty, 1983).

2.3.8 Germany

The German system has been characterised by 16 different states that administer education (Huber, 2001). Whilst all states approached principal training in a variety of ways some common characteristics were evident to Huber. Principals were seen as important public servants and generally had tenure for life.

All newly appointed leaders were offered training. During the 1990's emphasis was given to leading by communicating rather than by the previous notions of administrative competence and administration skills. Courses varied from one week to 40 days.

2.3.9 Singapore

Schools in Singapore were administered by a central Ministry of Education (Huber, 2001). The schools were in direct competition with each other. The system had a standardised promotion procedure. All middle managers had access to separate training. Principals underwent a nine month full time salaried programme that included modular courses, internships and mentoring. Many of the modular courses were similar to those in other countries, with the exception of one titled, 'Governance of Singapore'.

2.3.10 Hong Kong

Hong Kong has had no long standing tradition of training for principals (Huber, 2001). However with the advent of self management the Education Department instituted a nine day mandatory induction

course for principals, aimed at basic school management. Experienced primary school principals were then obliged to enter a continuous professional development program that had an emphasis on people skills and relationships.

Walker et al (2002) optimistically described the new framework that would come into full effect in 2002. The new framework would specifically target aspiring, new and serving principals with tailored learning programs. These programs had been negotiated with large participant groups and would focus on four broad leadership domains and then six core areas of strategic direction and policy development; teaching, learning and curriculum; leader and teacher growth and development; staff and resource management; quality assurance and accountability; and external communication and connection. A key feature of each program for all leaders was a needs analysis and the development of a professional portfolio. Some reservations were held about quality assurance of the programs, however early successes with the needs analysis aspect (and associated peer reviewers) indicated a shared optimistic future.

2.3.11 Taiwan

Wang and Hsieh (2002) conducted a survey of content / delivery of an educational leadership course in Taiwan to ascertain how leaders were being prepared for leadership roles. Whilst they acknowledged

that their survey did not look in fine detail at the courses offered, they concluded that in general the course suffered from five problems.

The problems included; a strong focus on management rather than educational leadership, an academic (theory) rather than a practical investigation style, a focus on courses that were bounded by common academic disciplines with few interdisciplinary structures, a similar structure and expectation at graduate level as well as post graduate level, and a lack of input from the practitioner, either experienced leaders or through apprenticeship / internship structures.

They concluded that wholesale change in course structures was not a useful strategy, especially given the different cultural setting in the East and understanding of the implementation dip phenomena. Rather they were concerned that there was room for careful, strategic improvement in what was viewed as a rather traditional and possibly ineffective area concerning the growth of educational leaders.

Hallinger (2002), writing at a similar time, emphasised the warning of the cultural context. He summarised some recent research that indicated that the work of East Asian principals was often shaped by strong hierarchy authority structures. He acknowledged that East Asian leaders still exerted strong influence on organisational results, however the day to day practises that achieved these were often different from those encountered in the West. He found that East Asian

leaders were often expected to implement bureaucratic orders as a means of developing change.

2.3.12 China

Recently the Chinese Ministry of Education (M.O.E.) recognised a need for improvement of their nation's school principals (People's Daily, 2000). The M.O.E. was reported to be considering ongoing training as a basis for tenure and upgrading training to improve principals' level of competence. The article implied that by improving principal competence, the quality of education would also increase.

2.3.13 New Zealand

Following the introduction of the new Education Standards Act in 2001 in New Zealand a National Induction Programme for new principals has been trialled (Eddy & Bennison, 2002). After some initial teething problems the program developed to include a residential component facilitated by academics (using current school based research) and experienced principals working as teams, on line computer support and a mentoring component. Each curriculum module was overarched with the guiding design question of, "How will this module increase the knowledge, understanding and skilful leadership of the principal to enhance the educational outcomes for students in their school?" (Eddy and Bennison, 2002, p.13). Early internal reviews indicate a high satisfaction from participants.

2.3.14 Australia

In Australia one national leadership centre and several state counterparts have offered training and support for the principalship.

The Australian Principals Centre (A.P.C.), based in the state of Victoria, offered leadership and management courses designed to develop a broad range of competencies. These courses fell into four domains, educational leadership, people leadership, values leadership, and strategic leadership.

Accreditation was available through the A.P.C. Members who satisfied the requirements of the A.P.C. accreditation panel were granted fellowship or associate status within the organisation. Accreditation was available through a written recognition of prior learning process. (A.P.C. newsletter, 1998)

The South Australian Centre for Leaders in Education (2000) provided support for school leaders in both the public and private sectors. The centre was established in 1996 as an initiative of key professional associations and the state department of education .

The New South Wales Department of Education and Training (2000) offered a certificate in school leadership and management that was dovetailed for 25% equivalence into masters degree courses in other local universities. This course structure involved eight units and

demanding completion of five. These included, issues in school leadership and management, strategic school leadership, financial management, community partnerships, curriculum leadership, human resource management, technological change, performance management and quality school management. The New South Wales Education Department also offered principal support in principal induction, anti discrimination and team leadership training.

The state of Tasmania centred its principal professional development within the Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.) (2000).

The institute was an initiative of two state principal associations (primary and secondary), the state education department and the state university.

The T.P.I. was closely involved with developing a professional recognition and accreditation program for principals. The accreditation program included pre principal accreditation, full principal accreditation and ongoing (five yearly) accreditation. The accreditation process was structured around a Principal Competency profile that included competencies such as Educational Leadership, Accountability, Interpersonal Relations, Cultural and Ethical Leadership, Political Leadership, and Personal Effectiveness (Tasmanian Principal's Institute, 2000, Principal Competency Profile).

The notion of partitioning the competencies of the principalship was also embedded in a national report into principal training in Australia, prepared in 1993. *Developing the Principalship* (1993) recommended that core professional development activities be offered for all principals, and that they should be nationally accredited and draw on best practise from any appropriate professional level. Levels could include professional associations, employers and / or business schools. Key priority areas for the decade of the 1990's were seen to be organisational management, educational leadership, organisational leadership, educational management, cultural leadership, political leadership and reflective leadership.

The Tasmanian Education Department managed a 'Principals of the Future Program' aimed at aspiring and current Principals. This program utilised a structure based on a two day residential workshop that explored various aspects of the competency profile, such as reflective or ethical leadership. The residentials involved a mix of university and professional workshop leaders, research readings and interactive, reflective learning activities.

The interrelationship between the accreditation program and the principal training program was an important issue in 2000 (Tasmanian Principals Institute, 2000). The Education Department initially opted for external certification of principals through a one day Principals Accreditation Centre approach, outsourced to a private interstate company. This system was replaced by a lengthy, evidenced

based peer assessment system managed by the T.P.I. Many assessment candidates undertook Principals for the Future workshops to supplement their evidence for accreditation.

The T.P.I. was dissolved by its partners in late 2002. The dissolution was prompted by environmental changes within the Tasmanian context. These included a dissolution of the strong notion of performance incentives for principals (and associated accreditation imperatives) and strong systemic focus on teacher professional development involving a new curriculum imperative.

2.3.15 Global

Bolam (2002) has synthesised some important perspectives in the design of professional development for principals. First he concluded that context was critical (social, economic, cultural, historical, professional and technical). Context led to questions about compulsion, accreditation, standards evaluation, appropriate content and delivery.

Secondly, the underlying theory of leadership that was being promulgated needed to be defined. Pluralist / contingency models, versus transformational leadership, or instructional leadership or alternatively bureaucratic leadership needed to be defined before appropriate program design could proceed.

A third issue involved the degree that the notion of *professional* educator was embedded in the context. Bolam argued that school systems that expected their leaders to operate from a standpoint of clearly defensible values, rather than say explicit competencies, would need a specific type of learning program design.

Fourthly, Bolam acknowledged that some contexts were articulating the needs of leaders at different stages of professional maturity. In the United Kingdom he recognised beginning teachers, advanced teachers, aspiring heads, new heads and substantive headteachers. He argued that level of professional evolution would no doubt dictate some aspects of training design for the participants.

Bolam acknowledged the immense difficulties in trying to describe a generic professional development model that might apply internationally. Indeed Gronn (2003) also considered, on balance, that whilst there may be some degree of transference of ideas in the leadership field across the global stage, the tendency would probably be towards divergence of structures on the international stage. He cited the likely causes for this to be inter-cultural differences and a driving pressure for divergent local solutions to be developed in the area of effective leadership.

2.4 Summary and Model Description

From this overview of local and international principal training it is clear that no one 'recipe' based model can be implemented across many settings. The key aspects for success seem to include adaptability and flexibility, careful acknowledgement of context variables, an authentic mix of theory/research and practical school based knowledge and skills, a reflective questioning orientation to learning, application of the learning in the real world and, careful review / assessment of all program components.

To conclude and synthesise this review of the literature of effective principal training a process model has been developed. The model considers that planning for principal professional development is as important, if not more important than, the delivery stage. The model is outlined in written and diagrammatic form below.

The Model

This model has five sections, as shown in diagram 1, on page 79. The first two sections refer to ***preconditions (program and environmental)***. The last three sections refer to ***delivery, (content, pedagogy and assessment)***.

Diagram 1 (see page 79) graphically shows how the environmental preconditions of effective principal training may intersect and need to be aligned with program factors including content, pedagogy and

assessment. Two vertical lines through the diagram attempt to show how parameters intersect with environmental factors. Preconditions are deemed to be important given that the environment in which the program will be nested can be a critical factor in the eventual success of the program. Preconditions inform *design and delivery*.

‘Ill fitted’ programs may be prone to various degrees of failure. Ill fitted programs might include these: a focus on simplistic management in a site based, self managed educational system; or use computer communication as the pedagogy medium where candidates have little grounding in its effective use; or focus on a personal values based view of leadership in a highly directed centralised constituency. ‘Well fitted’ programs, where preconditions are carefully scanned to help in the design and delivery phases, are more likely to have positive outcomes, at least from the participant’s viewpoint.

Program preconditions can be divided into two loosely coupled sets, **drivers** and **parameters**.

Scanning the topography for program preconditions may often happen during discussions with the program owners or the participants when their needs or parameters are being considered.

Drivers may be program owners or other people, or groups that may have a powerful stake in the program. Their motivations and

expectations need to be known by designers. If not, conflict and misalignment may have a negative effect on the delivered program.

Drivers may include, politicians, systemic power brokers, principals individually, principal associations, universities, community groups, or cultural norms.

Parameters may include, budget limits, program timing (start, stop, duration, cycle length), mandated program components, attachment to qualifications, or computer access.

Environmental preconditions can be classified into four overlapping categories (and intersect with program preconditions). This interplay is seen in diagram 1.

Social: for example, political, historical, economic, cultural, national, or legal conditions.

Systemic: for example, devolution, power hierarchies, system and school governance processes, relations with political system, centralisation, curriculum management, organisational structures, histories and traditions, or dispersed/rural/urban/concentrated system elements.

Local: for example, community characteristics, sub-cultural characteristics, socio economic issues, language(s), industrial/ environmental / social issues, school governance, school and regional histories and traditions, local social power bases, school characteristics (staff, resources, traditions), dominant pedagogies, or student outcomes.

Personal: for example, age, gender, experiences, management skills, leadership styles, learning styles, communication styles, skill and maturity level as educational leaders, (pre-principal, novice, experienced), computer skills, ethical orientation, motivation, or program expectations.

Time invested in gathering data about program preconditions and processing it at group and individual levels would help enhance program/participant alignment.

Delivery: Content, Pedagogy, Assessment

The key delivery elements considered in the model are content, pedagogy and assessment. Each will be considered in turn and the key issues in each one will be framed through questions.

Content:

- Does the content consider all relevant preconditions?
- Does it consider currently researched, relevant, valid aspects of management and leadership?
- Are these listed in some form (competencies) to assist with program curriculum management?
- Have the needs of the participants been sought and considered?
- Does the content challenge [the participant]?

- Does the content focus continually on organisational, staff and student outcome development? (grounded in reality not abstract intellectualisation)?
- Does the content involve a focus on leading teaching and learning as well as management?

Pedagogy: Have these aspects been considered in the design?

- All relevant pre condition aspects identified.
- Group and individual mentors available within group learning time.
- Computer / on line communication / input.
- Use of groups and teams, understanding of group formation processes considered.
- Deliberate use and practise of different leadership, management styles.
- Deliberate use of participant's own school based data in selected activities.
- Different content and program design fitted to skills and maturity in leadership of participants (pre principal, novice, experienced), content fit to individuals if needed.
- Timing / location; considering appropriate learning time, school calendars, retreat / off site / university course organisation.
- Support for access issues, language, finance, computer skills.
- Flexibility of access to program.
- Teaching / learning styles linked to content .

- Spacing for learning, reflection, action, review, cycle.
- Involvement of a partnership of theorist /academic and current practitioner.
- A structured in school mentor (trained) / internship component.
- Possible involvement with other non educational leaders or industry mentors.

Assessment:

Assessment can be viewed from two perspectives, for candidates and for deliverers / designers.

For candidates / participants:

- Is the assessment manageable for all parties and authentic?
- Will the assessment reflect the maturity level of participants, (pre, novice, and experienced principalship)?
- Will the assessment reflect a competency structure?
- Will the assessment concern management and leadership?
- Will the assessment involve a portfolio structure?
- Will the assessment involve peer, self, supervisor review (s) ?
- Will the assessment determine actual changes or development of candidates in school settings?
- Does the assessment comply with program owner specifications?

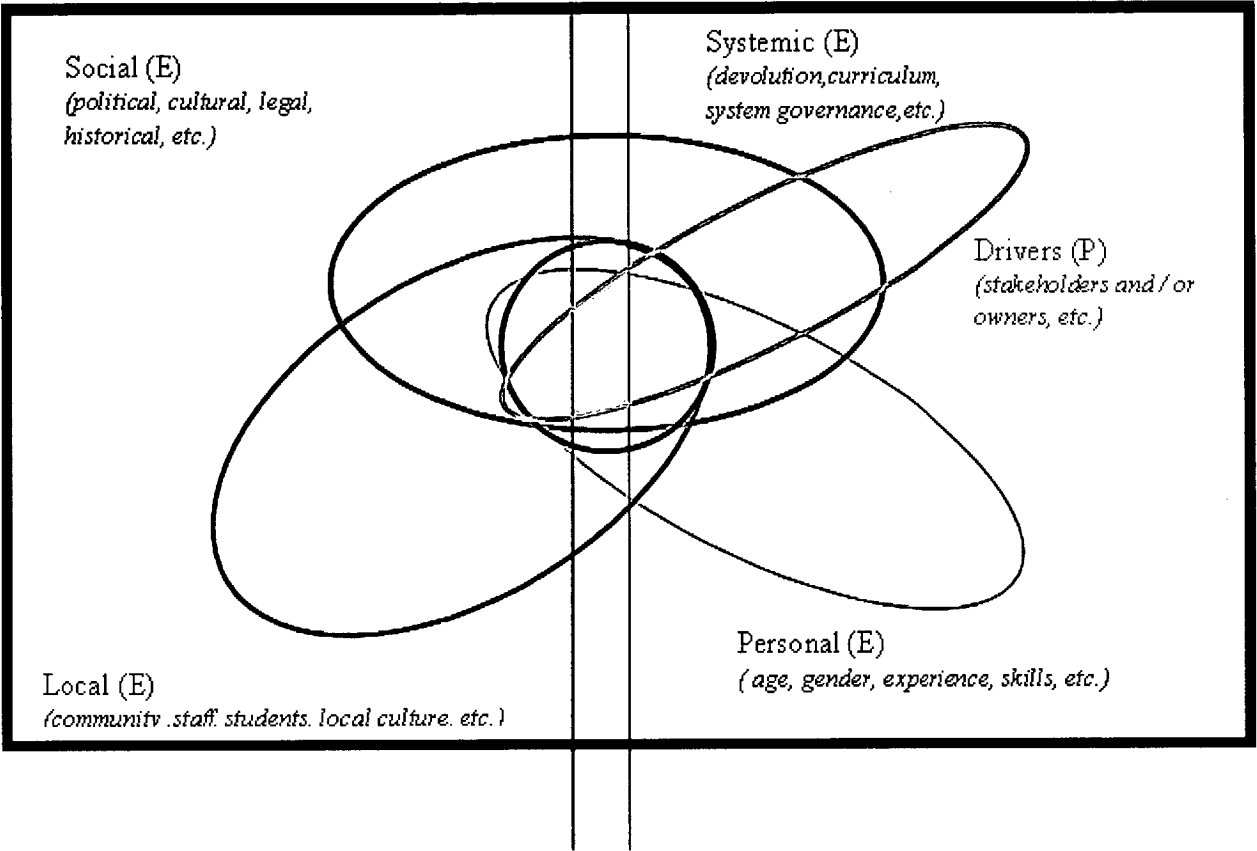
For deliverers and designers:

- How will the program design be assessed ?
- How will program deliverers and mentors be assessed ?
- How will assessment validity / authenticity be ensured ?
- How will assessments inform future program development ?

This chapter has outlined the detail of the model developed to describe the factors that are included in effective principal training design and delivery. The next chapter deals with the case study methodology used to test this model in the Tasmanian situation.

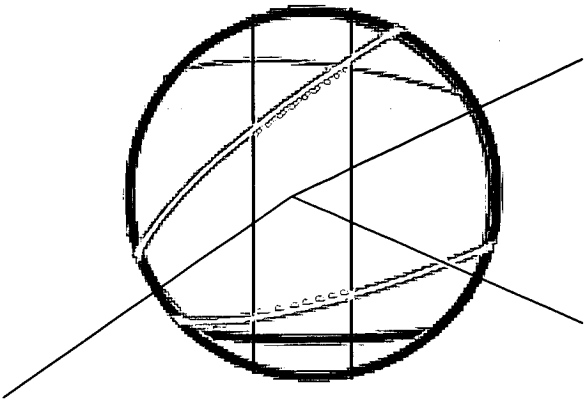
Diagram 1; A Synthesis of the Literature on Effective Principal Training.

PRECONDITIONS- Environmental (E) and Program (P)



DELIVERY –
(embedded in centre of
above diagram.)

Parameters (P)
(resources, timing, qualifications)



Content- (research base,
leadership, management, outcomes
focus, participant needs, etc.)

Pedagogy-(pre-conditions identified,
group learning, I.C.T., lead. Styles, school
data, maturity, logistics, access, learning
styles, reflection, theory / practice,
mentors, non-educators, etc.)

Assessment- (:for candidates of content, by
portfolio, peer, self, reflecting school settings and
program: for program- design, validity, inform
future design)

CHAPTER 3: METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the research design that was employed in this study. In brief, an ethnographic, interpretive case study approach was employed as the most appropriate investigative tool. Primary data was gathered from leaders, designers and participants of the Tasmanian Principal Institute (T.P.I.) professional development program through interviews. Documentation applicable to the study was utilised to enhance depth and triangulation.

Gall et al (1996) considers that case studies are done to shed light on a phenomenon. In this study the phenomenon is a program that developed over four years aimed at the professional development of principals in Tasmanian schools. The program had three key elements, a pre accreditation element, an accreditation element and a “Principals for the Future” element. As participants were able to move between and choose various elements the *total program* will be considered as this study’s phenomenon.

A quantitative approach was not deemed effective for this study. Data on a variety of opinions, facts and events that occurred in the past were sought in the data gathering phase. An open ended, interview based data gathering approach was deemed most effective for this type of situation.

Data in this study is expected to involve words more than numbers. Opinions, descriptions and judgements about events, content and structures were sought from different people. Merriam (1998) maintains that the non numerical aspect of a study also directs the procedural analysis towards a qualitative approach.

An interview process was deemed more appropriate for this study to ensure that questioning flexibility, clarity, depth and participant emotional responses could form part of the data base for analysis. Gall (1996) considers that interviews are more appropriate, compared with questionnaires, especially in studies, such as the present one, that involved a small number of participants and where detailed rich information was required.

The study methods and procedures are discussed under the headings of context, study questions, participants and sampling, researcher as instrument, procedures, and summary.

3.1 The Context

The context of this study is many faceted. The context discussion will consider history, researcher, time, place and setting, and participants.

The study took place in Tasmania, with interviews being conducted in 2003. Tasmania is an island state in Australia that had a population of approximately 500000 people and about 400 state (government administered) schools (Kindergarten to Grade 12). The schools ranged

in size from a student population of approximately 20 to over 2000 students. Tasmania is considered a regional Australian area with no large urban populations. The capital city, Hobart, had approximately 180 000 inhabitants.

All state schools are administered by a central Department of Education. At the time of the interviews a central professional development program to support development and training of aspiring and current school principals (based within the T.P.I.) had been dissolved (one year previously). The dissolution was most likely due to a major resource direction change of the central administration (to a curriculum reform agenda), and to the corresponding retirement of some senior educational officers that previously supported the leadership agenda.

At its dissolution, the leadership development model had four main arms: development of aspiring leaders (*Principals for the Future*), pre-accreditation and *accreditation* of staff for the principalship (based on a competency model and linked to salary increments), a small *induction* program for newly appointed principals, and a developing *consultancy* managing the specific needs of clusters of schools / principals / assistant principals.

Eight previous participants of T.P.I. programs were chosen to be interviewed. They represented a range of personal and professional

characteristics including gender, leadership experience, regional work location, and age. Five program designers were chosen who had occupied a range of levels of leadership within the programs (from the governing Board to program facilitator). These people were also chosen to represent a gender mix. All interviewees had recent knowledge and reflections of the programs under scrutiny.

The researcher knew most of the interviewees to various degrees of familiarity, such is the nature of a small state education system. To the researcher's knowledge there were no inhibiting factors in the relationships between researcher and interviewee. This lack of bias was possibly confirmed by all interviewees being willing, voluntary, first invitation participants.

3.2 The Study Questions

The key research question is, "Was the professional development program for principals (and aspiring principals) as offered by the T.P.I. of the highest quality?"

This question arose out of the earlier literature review on effective principal professional development. The review, in turn, prompted the model outlined in chapter 2. This model attempted to explain the parameters that contribute to effective professional development. Consequently, the key question aims to make a judgement about the

quality of professional development within the T.P.I. with reference to elements of the model.

To answer this key question some linked sub-questions needed to be pursued. These questions targeted the quality of planning, design and delivery of professional development:

- “Did the program reflect effective design of professional development?
- Did the program reflect effective delivery of professional development for principals?

Further questions targeted the quality of the program through assessing the quality of the outcomes linked to the program:

- Did the program enhance the promotion chances for aspiring principals?
- Did the program produce substantive principals who had enhanced leadership skills?
- Did the program have a linked effect to improved student outcomes?

It was assumed that effectiveness of a professional development program can be measured using two distinct viewpoints, the program’s own internal effectiveness, or quality and the quality of its outcomes (that are assumed to be linked to the program).

The case study involved collecting information and opinions about the program. Multiple sources of information were used to help triangulate the findings. Data was extracted from interviews and documentary records. Corroboration of data was also attempted by accessing information from a variety of stakeholders. Participants (aspiring, new and experienced principals), program directors or owners (Department of Education and the University of Tasmania officers) and program designers (the T.P.I. Board and officers of the T.P.I. who had responsibility for the program on the ground) were all used to gather views and opinions on the program's effectiveness.

3.3 Participants and Sampling

“The qualitative researcher tries to make the sample the best one possible” (Gay, 1996, p.213). In this study the sample concentrated on owners / designers and participants. The owners and designers of the program were a reasonably discrete group of people. It was decided to interview the main director of the program, the executive officer, program facilitators (three people), and a sample of the controlling Board members (two).

A representative sample of program participants was also involved in interviews. It was decided to aim for eight participants. These participants represented the program evolving over time, various sub-programs, different gender perspectives, pre-principals and substantive principals, and a diversity of school types.

The sample size was determined within two parameters. For practical reasons, a total of fifteen interviews fitted the resources and timeframe of the study, and, more importantly, the researcher wanted the interviews to dig deeply into understanding the processes, links, pitfalls, highlights and overall effectiveness of the program. Hence a small in-depth sample of participants was deemed important.

3.4 Researcher as Instrument

I was the primary research instrument in this study. The decision was based on the view that I was the most appropriate instrument to interpret participant data and adapt to different contextual factors as they arose.

3.4.1 Warnings – Observer Bias and Effect.

Krathwohl (1998) noted that researchers should carefully check, and not dismiss, data known as outliers. Outliers, or surprise findings, should be used to extend and modify findings. This study has the potential to include observer bias. Gay (1996) noted that researchers must be aware of the challenge to meet and minimise observer bias. In this study the researcher was known to many of the interviewees and every effort was made to observe carefully and transcribe oral discussions exactly.

Gay (1996) similarly warned about observer effect. In this study, any indications of observer effect were noted in interview notes. However, careful interview planning, interviewee verification and an atmosphere of professional trust between researcher and participants helped to minimise observer effect.

3.4.2 Validity and Reliability

Burns (1996) argued strongly that ethnographic research produces some dilemmas for reliability and validity, especially when compared to quantitative research. He suggested strongly that triangulation was a very good method of ensuring high reliability and validity. Gall et al. (1996) also support this position. Similarly Burns cites (1996) that different actors viewpoints can often enhance internal validity.

In this study triangulation was enhanced by five strategies. Documents were sourced that described various aspects of the professional development program. Participant checking of interview statements eliminated any unintended responses. Field notes were taken by the observer as well as transcribed interview notes. The theory of principal professional development was well researched to help provide an external reference point for judgments about the program. Finally, interview schedules involved opportunities for designers, facilitators and participants to express their opinions about the effectiveness of the program.

Reliability can be enhanced if the coding system used in the interview analysis is replicable by others (Gall, 1996) and replicable across different interview transcript analysis efforts (Silverman, 1993). In this study intra-transcript reliability was enhanced by the sole researcher maintaining a consistent moderation on analysis of transcripts. An explanation of the coding system used follows in section 3.6.

3.5 Procedures

3.5.1 Authorisations

Approval for the study was sought from all groups represented on the board of the T.P.I., all participants, and the University of Tasmania Ethics Committee. Copies of letters and approvals are attached in Appendix A.

3.5.2 Data Collection Processes

3.5.2.1 Interviews and Questioning

The behaviour of the interviewer is critical to the success of the primary data gathering phase. Interviewer behaviour can seriously affect quality of data (Gall, 1996). Behaviours such as these listed below, informed this study. The list is aggregated from the work of writers such as Burns (1996), Gall (1996) and Merriam (1998).

- Assure confidentiality.
- Build rapport at the beginning, actively listen and show interest.
- Explaining that the interviewee will have final say on the content of the transcript.

- Explain the study benefits.
- Use a common language that is understood by the interviewee.
- Use open ended questions.
- Keep complex questions to the end.
- Avoid multi-part, leading or Yes/No type questions.
- Let the interviewee talk, use mirroring or parroting if necessary.
- Use simple probes such as “ Can you tell me more about that?”
- If a question threatens, avoid it and possibly return to it later.

3.5.2.2 Document Analysis

Several document types were available to this study. The T.P.I. published materials advertising courses to participants, issued memos regarding internal developments, constructed its own internal organisational documentation, minuted meetings and detailed annual reports.

These documents assisted in providing contextual evidence as well as providing data to support some of the key study questions. Gall (1996) and Merrian (1998) caution the researcher to question the context, intent, and detail of documents critically. Aspects considered include:

- The intended audience.
- Intent and purpose.
- The author’s context when writing.
- The researcher creating their own meaning, especially at a future time.
- The document’s completeness, has it been edited?

- Author's bias.
- Are there any corroborating documents?

3.5.2.3 Interview Schedules

The model developed in chapter two directly influenced the interview questions. An assumption is made that the model reflects key aspects of any effective professional development program for school leaders. However, the case study involved some more open questions that gave case study participants an opportunity to refute, or expand upon the model. It was hoped that these questions would further assist in model development. Similarly the case study involved some questions to help determine the driving forces behind the program's genesis and evolution. These questions help to determine if any overriding external factors influenced design and delivery.

Interview questions:

For Participants;

1. Please tell me briefly how you were involved in either the Principals for the Future program and / or the accreditation programs of the T.P.I..
2. In an effort to fit the program in the best way to the candidates, program designers may need to look at the context within the program sits. One of the context elements is information about yourself. Do you think your particular circumstance, skills and

knowledge was considered in the program design? If so, how?, if not, how could this have been improved?

3. Other context elements may include what is happening in education locally, nationally and internationally as well as acknowledging the culture that the program sits within. Do you think these elements were taken into account? If not how could these context elements have been better included in the design of the program these aspects?
4. Sometimes local community / school characteristics can significantly affect the principals role. Do you think the program involved these elements if they were relevant, and were you asked about them?, some examples as prompts may be local, social or economic issues or school outcomes.
5. What do you think were the significant drivers behind the genesis of the T.P.I. program?
6. Do you think there were any limitations upon the program, and if so how may these have been addressed?
7. Do you think the content of the program elements that you participated in were appropriate (relevance and currency)? What did you think about the overall package of content

delivered from the holistic view of the principalship?, were there any elements that should have been included, excluded or given more/ less emphasis?

8. Did the content focus on improving student outcomes either directly or indirectly?

9. What did you think about the delivery of the program, did the pedagogy effectively fit the content, context and participants. In particular I am interested in your comments re

- Group processes
- ICT use
- Exploring different management / leadership styles
- Timing, location, logistics
- Support for individuals
- Learning styles if participants
- Reflection opportunities
- Action in relation to an actual / your school setting
- Opportunity for mentorship
- Variety of program leaders
- Use of external DoE leaders.

10. Finally, I am interested in your views on the assessment methods used in the T.P.I. program you were involved in.

Please describe briefly how you were assessed.

11. Was the assessment appropriate / valid?
12. Was there opportunity for you to negotiate or influence the assessment process?
13. Did the assessment involve measuring actual change of your skills in your workplace.
14. Were you involved in any overall T.P.I. program assessment or review?
15. Given your T.P.I. experience, would you recommend any specific or broad reaching changes to the professional development of principals, within the program you undertook, now or in the future?
16. What do you think are the main challenges for our profession in ensuring that our principals have access to the most effective professional development possible ?

For designers

1. Can you please tell me briefly how you were involved in the T.P.I. professional development program for principals? In this

context I am considering accreditation programs as well as 'Principals for the Future' type programs.

2. From your point of view were there any factors that had a strong influence on the design of the programs. If so what were they and how did they influence design?

prompt – social, systemic, local, personal

3. Were the characteristics of participants or potential participants considered within the design?, if so how?

4. Did participants have to forward or bring any specific information to courses or programs, if so why?

5. Who or what do you think were the main driving forces behind the T.P.I. programs?

6. What effect did they have on the programs?

7. Were these "drivers" represented within the controlling authority structure that drove the programs?

8. Were there any other parameters that affected the programs that the T.P.I. ran? Prompt- time, schedules, budgets.

9. How was the content to the programs designed and organised?, where did the main content ideas come from (research, schools, other similar programs)?
10. Do you think there was consideration given to both the leadership and management roles of aspiring or current principals within the content design? Can you give any examples?
11. When considering the ‘how’ of delivery, or the pedagogy of the program, what ideas or decisions or issues were built into the T.P.I. programs ?
12. Were these issues important in design discussions:
- Using participant pre course characteristics / data
 - Mentoring groups or individuals during program delivery
 - Use of computer support pre or post delivery? On line, software...
 - Incorporating group formation theory into design of programs
 - Deliberate use of a variety of leadership and management styles within the delivery or course structure
 - Use of school based data from participants
 - Consideration of the differing needs of candidates at different levels of professional maturity
 - Optimal timing, location and scheduling of courses

- Support to ensure access to courses (financial, transport...)
- Flexible entry into programs
- Matching teaching styles to content or learner styles
- Spacing learning to ensure reflection, action, review where appropriate
- Involvement of research and practising professional partners
- A structured in school mentor or internship component
- Partnerships with other industry or non education leaders / managers.

13. How was the assessment of candidates executed within the programs? Who by?, how? Was it manageable and authentic?

14. Was assessment reflective of content or pedagogy?

15. Did the assessment reflect actual skills or changes to candidates capacities in their workplaces?

16. Did the stakeholders impose any assessment parameters?

17. Within the T.P.I. how was the program design and delivery assessed?

18. Within the T.P.I. how were the skills of the deliverers assessed?

19. Did assessment inform program development?, if so can you give examples?

20. Do you any further comments or ideas you would like to add about the T.P.I. programs, or professional development of Principals in general (past, now or in the future)?

3.5.2.4 Coding and Data Analysis Procedure.

Merriam (1998) provides some excellent ground rules for data analysis and coding when using documents, field notes and interview transcripts. These practises were adopted for this study.

All notes were identified by a key code number that identified the *source* of the data (for example, person, T.P.I. memo) and *position* in the raw data source, by different coloured marker, indicating a potential theme / issue. This strategy allowed interviewees to become anonymous as the analysis progressed (thus helping eliminate some possible researcher relationship bias) as well as allowing a quick recall method to each raw data source, when needed at a later date.

Data analysis in this study was a manual process. Beginning with the first transcripts, units of data were sorted into groups with common themes or concepts. This process necessitated physical dissection of transcripts (after a master copy was stored). The researcher looked for recurring regularities in the data. After several periods of constant

comparative review clear categories emerged that spanned a majority of the material available to the study. In some cases recurring themes arose in similar interview areas, in other cases a variety of themes became apparent in any one area, and in other cases recurrent themes arose across a variety of data sites.

Some researcher bias was eliminated through asking an impartial colleague to locate data units into categories at various intervals.

This process followed the suggestions of Krathwhol (1997). He suggested that analysis should start with careful observation of data (every piece that is available), then slowly move to coding categories (whilst still doing some observation), finally some interpretation (category making) should be focussed on, after doing much coding and observation. Krathwohl (1997) considered that repetitions and relationships within the raw data were often indicators of possible categories.

Merrian (1998) suggested five tests for good categories (p.183-184);

Categories should... reflect the purpose of the research...be exhaustive [you should be able to place all important data]...be mutually exclusive [a piece of data should only fit one category]...be sensitising [named well]...be conceptually congruent [none should rank higher than others]

The analysis phase was terminated after many recursions through the data. It was considered that three of Lincoln and Guba's (1985) research milestones had been met. Sources of data had been exhausted, categories were becoming saturated (new data yielded few insights) and a sense of integration was becoming apparent. Concept development was then integrated with the model derived from the literature review. A refined model, with some ranking of elements and possible future research avenues was then developed.

The interviews were conducted over a two week period in mid 2003. Individual interview duration ranged from 40 minutes to two hours. During actual interviews some questions were omitted from the original order if the interviewee had clearly covered the issue in a previous response. Each interview involved a series of questions pertaining directly to the professional development model outlined in chapter 2. In addition, each interview began with a question that allowed the candidate to clearly explain their contextual circumstance with respect to the Tasmanian Principals Institute programs. In addition, each interview concluded with a broad open ended question that allowed candidates to elaborate or include any other relevant information on the programs being questioned or professional development of school leaders in general.

Interviewees were split into two distinct groups, designers and participants. Designers represented people who conceived of, planned

and sometimes facilitated actual programs for aspiring and substantive school leaders. This group comprised one woman and four men. One designer interviewee resided in another Australian state and provided detailed written responses, rather than oral interview data, directly to the interview questionnaire format.

The participants represented (at the time of interview) both current and aspiring principals and comprised eight people representing various geographic school locations and a variety leadership positions in primary, secondary and senior secondary school settings. This group included four men and four women.

Interviewees were generally positively motivated by the interview format and the questions. Several interviewees included lengthy additional written comments and supplementary documents to assist the case study.

Interview transcription and verification by interviewees was completed during a four month period, in late 2002/3. Verification resulted in some transcripts requiring significant amendment, whilst other interviewees requested little or no alterations from the original verbal data. The verification process continued until early 2004.

3.6 Summary

The interview methodology provided a rich avenue to collect data on program components as well as including reflective assessment by people working with the program. The iterative analysis of data allowed themes to become apparent. The iterative process also allowed for data inconsistencies, either triangulated outside of the model parameters or, in some cases, significant logical issues not previously argued as part of the study research. These inconsistencies could lead to possible further model refinement.

The next chapter focuses on the results of the case study interviews that were conducted and cites some data from written sources associated with the T.P.I.

CHAPTER4: RESULTS

This chapter will focus on the T.P.I. over a period of seven years, leading to and including the four year period under review in this study. Following this discussion, each major element developed in the previous chapter of the model, will be used as a heading to structure the data and assist subsequent analysis. In general participant information will precede designer information. The first data group will involve analysis of program preconditions of a social or systemic nature.

It should be noted that in some cases the interview respondent will be named as *he or she*. To preserve the anonymity of interviewees a random use of these pronouns is used and no valid gender assumptions can be made by the reader.

4.1 The Tasmanian Principals Institute (T.P.I.): Genesis and Growth.

The historical data referring to the genesis and growth of the (T.P.I.) is largely drawn from two sources: interview data from two designers who were outlining their involvement with the T.P.I. and written material archived in the Department of Education, most importantly the annual reports of the T.P.I.

This description will follow the format of a chronological time line of significant events and outcomes affecting the T.P.I.

1995 – 1997

- Principal Consultants appointed and seconded from leadership positions within the Department of Education to lead and facilitate professional learning for school leaders on a state-wide basis. This is a pattern that continues each year from 1995 to 2002.

1998

- Principals' Consultant appointed to lead the Principals for the Future Program.
- Line management of Principals' Consultant jointly shared by Deputy Secretary for Corporate Services and Director of School of Teacher Development.
- Steering committee oversaw the Principals for the Future program and involved both line managers and the Secretary of Education.
- The Liberal State Government developed *Directions for Education*, a policy document that involved accreditation and professional learning for principals.
- Australian wide research on leadership development gathered by the Principal Consultant, which focussed on the South Australian and Australian Principal's Centre models. In particular, the needs of an alliance with a local university,

high quality courses and spaced learning processes were identified.

- Principal Competency profile is reviewed (with input from the University, the profession and senior officers) due to pressure for a peer based accreditation process from within the profession. Previously principals had been accredited through a poorly accepted one day P.A.C. (Principals Accreditation Centre) managed by consultants from Victoria.
- Alliance with the university formed to support extension programs for experienced principals and a revamp of the Principal's Induction Program.
- With the sense that the profession was having some direct influence over accreditation and professional learning, the suggestion arises that a Principals' Institute may be set up to serve these needs of educational leaders.
- With an offer from the University of Tasmania's faculty of education to support a fledgling institute, the interim Tasmanian Principals Institute is quickly formed at the end of 1998, other partners are the Principals Associations (Primary and Secondary) and the Department of Education.
- In late 1998 Tasmanians vote to change their government to a Labor government with a new Minister for Education.

1999

- Executive Officer appointed to develop the new Institute.

- A new Principal Consultant appointed to run the Foundation Program (also known as Principals for the Future), the Central Induction Program (for new Principals) and the Developing Professional Learning Teams Program (for experienced Principals). 242 people attended professional learning programs, 161 of which were aspiring leaders, 33 participants attended additional workshops to plan preparation of an accreditation portfolio.
- The Labor government commits to a new highly consultative policy making process, named “Tasmania Together”. The educational component of which is named “Learning Together”.
- Some restructuring of professional development facilitation roles within the Department of Education, involving a physical transfer of Principals for the Future program from the central office in Hobart to Letitia House in the Hobart suburb of Mt. Nelson.
- Director of School of Teacher Development becomes Director of Professional Learning Services.
- The Institute has a base in Launceston (accreditation focus) and Hobart (professional learning focus) and is resourced by a partnership of the University and the Department of Education.
- A new principals accreditation process is developed, resourced and trialled based on rigorous evidence, portfolios and trained peer assessors. Pre-principal accreditation and accreditation processes are completed around the state.

- T.P.I. officers note a development of a philosophical base of 3R's – all programs to be Relevant, Recognised (by institutions such as the university) and Reflective (involving some spaced components and a review / reflection aspect).
- The central induction program component of the T.P.I. (for new principals) has developed to include a school orientation, a district orientation, a two day central office orientation, a mentor component, and a reflective, end of year, workshop.

2000

- New principal consultant appointed, 288 leaders attend professional learning, 182 of which are aspiring leaders.
- T.E.L.I., the Tasmanian Educational Leaders Institute is formed, based at Letitia House.
- Accreditation processes continue.

2001

- New principal consultant appointed.
- T.P.I. consults with professional sub groups, such as Assistant Principals and curriculum reform groups, about their needs and facilitates tailored extension workshops.

2002

- New principal consultant appointed.
- July – T.P.I. Board votes itself into dissolution amidst concerns expressed by some educational leaders and some university staff.

4.2 Interview Data

As noted previously, interview data will follow a segmented pattern closely aligned to interview questions and model elements. In general, participant data will precede designer data.

4.2.1 Results: Program Preconditions-drivers and Parameters.

All eight participant interviewees noted that they thought that the main driving factor in the establishment of the T.P.I. was one involving the need for professional development of school leaders.

Interview comments included:

...it was to enhance leadership.

...principals were going in quick succession, [and] there probably wasn't the time to get experience in lesser roles [as had happened in the past].

...they were trying to address issues of preparing and supporting aspirant Principals...

[It was] ... to get people together who were beginning Principals..... so that they gained the knowledge.

...it was because teachers are trained as teachers and not as managers... so there was a need for training of people in senior positions.

...it was based on a vision... about basically some preparing of future Principals - having a succession plan.

...[it was about] succession planning with looking at the next generation of leaders, their skills and attitudes...

In the area of limiting parameters, participants noted a variety of possible limitations;

- three day continuous format; rather than 2+1 day, thus ensuring a review day after some action (interestingly, this was a format adopted at a latter stage by another facilitator in North West Tasmania).
- the name, Principals for the Future, may have alienated some educators who did not aspire to this actual role of principal.
- travelling time, from the west coast to the main venue was six hours.
- large group sizes, and the associated difficulty in meeting individuals needs and following up with each participant.
- changing facilitators each year as this may have caused expertise to be lost.

- evolution of the program - some programs developed as they were trialled, rather than being presented as a mature professional development package.
- targeting effective applicants and the associated possibility that not all participants may have been fully committed to future leadership.

Two participants indicated that there were no limitations that they could see and no participants identified more than two separate limitations.

Program designers stated that a variety of preconditions were important in the initial development of the T.P.I. programs. Three of the five designers considered that a major factor governing the need to develop an institute (and associated programs that were largely controlled by the professional school leaders in Tasmania), was the pressure being exercised by the Education Department in Tasmania to insist that Tasmanian school leaders be professionally accredited.

Other individual precondition factors noted in interviews were:

- The political imperative for principal employment contracts under the then Liberal Tasmanian Government.
- A need for a coherent professional training program for school leaders in Tasmania as perceived by principals and senior departmental officers.

One designer stated that , “ ...I believe there were a group of principals who really wanted to have an institute for themselves.”

Designers indicated that there were few limitations on the program.

The limitations noted included:

- long distance frequent travel for principal consultants.
- the yearly educational time schedules that impacted on program timing.
- the concern about accessing some excellent candidates who often felt they could not easily leave their school.

All designers noted that programs were well funded and hence, funding was not perceived as a limiting parameter.

4.2.2 Results: Environmental Preconditions- Social, Systemic, Local, Personal.

The model assumes that environmental preconditions are important, and hence that the course should be closely fitted to the current educational context and the needs of its participants. The model assumes that individual information about participants may assist designers. Seven out of eight participants reported that the Principals for the Future programs did not consider their individual characteristics, their statements included;

Not for those courses ...

... they were a one size fits all type program.

... - I don't have the feeling they were specifically targeted towards me-...

However three participants who participated in the pre-accreditation program through peer review, strongly held the view that this learning was specifically tailored towards them and their needs. Statements included, "...Principal accreditation certainly took my particular circumstances into account" and "...they took everyone's circumstances into account there."

One participant recalled a possible instance of, "...filling out a questionnaire prior to going." This participant was also slightly concerned about the utility of this information given that this work group had fifty participants.

Two participants made the observation that personal fit for the courses was sometimes achieved through careful course selection by the applicant or by an applicant sponsor, such as a supervising principal.

One participant stated that , "...you could tap into things you needed to go to."

When asked if the programs took local system, national or international developments into account, all participants said they did.

Comments included, "...I have a sense that some best practise stuff came from outside the state." and "certainly system level stuff was taken into account."

When asked if their local school context was factored into the programs, the participants generally answered in the negative. However one participant stated that this could, and did happen, when a group of participants from one school attended a program. They were able to review their local professional context.

Two other participants noted that the use of role play and local school based stories also brought them close to their own school contexts. One participant noted that, "...scenarios, role plays, activities ...[enabled us] to share those kind of views."

Three out of five designers indicated that the expectation that all principals in Tasmania would become professionally accredited, as an employer mandate, was a significant systemic precondition to many of the T.P.I. programs.

Designers stated that:

...[accreditation was] ...a tension between what the then government wanted, which was an accountability system and

payment by results, and [my priority] which was the advancement of the profession...

... and [accreditation] it was promoted, I guess, in the department by [an officer] who at the same time was looking at new contracts for principals...[involving fulfilment of accreditation].

The principals were very cheesed off about the accreditation process so the T.P.I. really emerged out of a desire to modify and change the process.

[at a meeting, a senior principal] said what we need is an institute which would serve the needs of principals but would also take over this accreditation stuff...

Similarly, the internal structuring within the Education Department, and a reassignment of roles in 2000, may have played a role in setting the scene for the development of the T.P.I., as one designer noted that:

... [an officer] was keen to get Principals for the Future moved to Letitia House to come under the ambit of Professional Learning.

[and] ...with the change of government there were changes going on within the Education Department... Principals for the Future, was [in fact] captured and taken to Letitia House.

Letitia House was situated adjacent to a Secondary College in a suburb of Hobart called Mt. Nelson. In 1999, it was the controlling office location for all professional learning involving teaching and school leadership staff in the Education Department.

Personal philosophy was a large motivator for one designer. She had held the personal view for many years that:

... I was always trying to develop people who were involved as professionals- as people who were independent of their employers.

The model indicated, and the interview questions asked, if there were any local or personal preconditions that affected the T.P.I. programs.

Designers did not indicate any specific local preconditions, that is preconditions that applied to school or regional levels rather than system issues. Personal preconditions at facilitation level were noted by designers including:

- the quality of professional learning leaders that were coopted for training courses. One designer noted that a , “...deliberate decision was made to have a very representative range of practising skilled, school/college principals... to work as skilled presenters...”
- the one year tenure of Principal Consultants, and the overall plan for how the Institute’s programs ran, including feedback from the previous year, tended to create a relatively static overall program structure that was subject to small annual amendments.

Personal preconditions at participant level were noted in greater number by designers, some reflected program expectations others reflected participant characteristics:

- pre-reading expectations - two participants stated that ...it was expected that the participants for the Principals of the Future program would bring the knowledge of the background material [supplied prior]...
and
...sometimes they were sent pre-readings to process beforehand.
- Follow up reading - another facilitator approached reading as an expectation of the workshop attendance where they could be used as a “...follow up to the workshop.”

- Needs of the target group- Only one designer mentioned an instance where the specific needs of the target group were considered in depth after close consultation with participants: “[after much consultation]...it was like giving birth to a baby and once it was right we ran in 2001 a fabulous workshop...which was fantastic. ..[and lead to future similar programs].”

4.2.3 Results: Content

Participants were essentially asked to comment about the content of the T.P.I. courses under three broad questions:

- Was the content appropriate?
- Did the content package represent a holistic view of the principal’s role?
- Did the content affect student outcomes?

Each of these broad areas will be considered below.

Appropriateness :

All participants considered that the content was appropriate for themselves. Comments included:

...I know I came away with a very good sense of the principal competencies.

I thought it was the best thing in terms of getting a picture of the principal's role...

The school management one was [very relevant.]

I believe it was relevant and I was inspired by the workshops at Bicheno ...

... well I found it very appropriate because I had been in really small schools and it gave us the situation where we were involved with several senior staff type of people-...

I think they were, they were both of these things- appropriate, relevant and current.

I thought it was useful...

When questioned about whether the entire T.P.I. package of training was a reasonable holistic representation of the principal's role, participant responses varied in their level of support. Four of the participants were in general or strong support for the competency package structure, whilst three participants identified omissions within the entire structure. One participant was not aware of the entire package of training.

Participants who agreed that the competency based package indicated an holistic view of the principalship roles including statements at interview such as:

Yes, I suppose you have to set the bar at some level and you have to have some sort of criteria that are important- so, yes, as a framework I suppose competencies have a use-...

[I thought it was good] and I learnt a lot about myself as I put the portfolio together and as a result I feel I had a wider view of what leadership is than when I started.

I thought it [the competency approach], was the best thing in terms of getting a picture of what the breadth of the principal's role was... I thought it was really worthwhile and I try to get teachers to get that notion in their head... [the] bigger picture thing in their head.

Some participants thought that the holistic competency based structure had some omissions. Three participants made the following comments:

..they [the competencies] are all valid but I think there was something missing- and I think now that I would have loved to have had so much more- ...- [about] educational leadership ...

...- but it [the Managing Staff course] didn't take into consideration that I was coming from where you have beginning teachers and the amount of professional development, the amount of learning, the amounts of support that you have to give teachers when they first come into a school situation and it just didn't meet my needs at all in that regard.

...-I would say perhaps there was an idealistic view of what the principal's role was to some extent. The actual role would be pretty diverse and challenging and it varies from site to site and to say that these are the things that principals do and therefore these are the skills that principals need may be a little bit simplistic.

Participant responses varied with regard to whether the content focussed on student outcomes either directly or indirectly. Seven participants were sure that there was an indirect link and one participant recalled a strong direct link involving a curriculum development course offered by the T.P.I.

Typical comments linked indirectly to student outcomes were:

...they [the T.P.I. courses] probably did [have an indirect link to student outcomes]...the portfolio must have indirectly because it was asking me to reflect on the context I was in...

Yes [indirectly]

I think the whole reason you are there [at the course] is for the kids [in school]...but then I don't think that was at the forefront of the minds of people at the course, so I think - an indirect link.

A participant who attended a Grade 9 to 10 curriculum Rethink / Reforming workshop in 1999, distinctly recalled the direct link to students outcomes, stating that , “..the 9-10 one definitely did – [the course] was looking at ways of improving student outcomes directly.”

Designers were asked to comment on two aspects of course content;

- design and organisation
- management and leadership aspects of content.

All five designers acknowledged that T.P.I. programs, and in particular the Foundation Programs, were linked directly to the Principal Competency Profile. During each year, six foundation programs were developed, organised and delivered by a principal consultant, one of whom stated that:

The main ideas came out of the Principal Competency Profile which were the drivers behind the accreditation process ... and each of the six workshops covered one of those [major] competency areas. ...The skill in the professional learning design

came from the initial planning meeting where I had a whole lot of stakeholders involved

Whilst all designers acknowledged the importance of the competencies, one designer noted that these competencies may not have been the most appropriate design base. The designer stated:

...I remind you that I constantly argued against those competencies – because, in terms of quality professional development, there is no evidence to link those long lists of competencies to programs, let alone to subsequent success in schools.

In terms of how the T.P.I. programs balanced the issues of management and leadership as aspects of the Principal's role, designers were unanimous in their responses that these issues were either included or at least part of planning discussions. One designer noted that :

There was certainly always given consideration to issues of leadership versus management and on the board there was some debate about whether we were training managers or getting leaders to learn.

Another designer stated:

My emphasis on all my involvement on the board and its programs was on leadership. ... Management is an employer responsibility. ... But the risk is that management emphasis comes to dominate the leadership, professional or educational emphasis. ... [20 minutes later] The whole area of professional development, as the name implies, has to be for the professional. The most effective and significant professional development, one that improves the school and the lives of young people in this state [Tasmania] will only occur if the professional takes control of, runs, assesses, evaluates, the courses.

Two designers considered that a mix of leadership and management training was provided by the mix inherent in the six major competencies that formed the basis of the Foundation programs. One designer noted this mix by saying:

[an example of the mix of leadership and management is] – planning and accountability covered the management, educational leadership covered leadership, so it was already built into the competencies.

Another designer noted that the nature and needs of the target course participants may have determined the need for or mix of leadership and management in a course. He stated that:

...- it's true that many were management orientated. The A.P.'s [Assistant Principals] would say ...[they wanted to] know how the budget works and how does the school run- and the department would say- we would like those principals...to manage their budgets better

[Leadership content demands] ... that certainly came from the principals- that's what they wanted.

4.2.4 Results: Pedagogy of Professional Development

The questions posed of participants with respect to pedagogy, *the how*, of the T.P.I. programs started with a general question and then moved directly to asking for comment on a set of pedagogy *elements* distilled from the literature. In most cases, participants gave more detailed answers to the element type questions.

The elements that were inquired into were placed under twelve distinct headings; group processes, use of I.C.T. (Information computer technology), exploring different management and leadership styles, timing/location/logistics, support for individuals, incorporation of learning styles of participants, reflection opportunities, action in relation to an actual/or your school setting, opportunity for mentorship, variety of program leaders, and the use of leaders external to Department of Education schools.

Designers were asked the same specific prompting questions. In addition they were asked to comment on access to courses, flexible

entry procedures, consideration of the needs of participants at different levels of professional maturity, and use of personal participant data in pre course planning.

This results section will explore each of these elements in the sequence listed above. Each subsection of results will consider the results of participants followed by results from designers.

Group processes

All participants were sure that group processes were used in the planning of delivery of the programs. Three participants mentioned that:

At Bicheno...[I recall]... we were put into groups, in mixed groups, randomly chosen, and we had a fairly in-depth scenario that we had to work through over three days- and looking back we certainly had a bit of norming and storming before we got to the performing side of it.

... We had specific groups and towards the end of the two-day residential [at Shearwater on Tasmania's north west coast] we actually developed a group of our own that still meets today... we were also given different roles in the group... where we had to change our performance as such.

Yes, I thought they were really good – I would give them 8 out of 10.

Designers were clear that group processes formed a part of the design process.

One designer noted that:

I tried to influence the Board [of the T.P.I.] ... that a program that lasted three to four days actually developed over time. ... so that groups needed to do certain things in order [storming, norming, performing].

Other designers noted that:

Yes [group formation processes were incorporated] including walk and talk[activities] where participants were introduced to each other in the process of forming home groups- ...

This was always incorporated into the design of the program and that came through in the initial planning meeting at the beginning of the year where we had all the stakeholders involved ...

[The program] ... used group formation theory, some of those exercises that he [another lead designer] does so well were used on many occasions ...

I.C.T. (Information Communication Technology) Use

Five out of the eight participants interviewed responded that no use was made of I.C.T. by themselves during the courses. Comments included responses such as:

The only thing I can remember was the use of overheads and hand-outs but certainly not technology.

...it was probably using overheads- there wasn't any I.C.T. though...

Not that I can remember- but that doesn't mean there wasn't any

Looking at overheads-don't recollect much in the way of Powerpoint and I recollect ... [one facilitator] ... tended to use overheads more and things like that.

One participant mentioned the use of I.C.T. to support the pre-principal accreditation program that was developed in 1999:

... I was [using I.C.T.] with the pre-principal accreditation and I certainly used the information that was on the computer that was there for putting the portfolio together and I certainly used it for that purpose.

Two participants mentioned that presenters used technology:

[I.C.T. was not used] by the participants but there was use by presenters but it wasn't part of the task or activities that you were involved in.

Yes, there was definitely I.C.T. – they used PowerPoint and those programs.

Designers stated that I.C.T. was used at various levels within the T.P.I. courses. Designers noted that in 1999 / 2000 the T.P.I. had developed a website that included the ability to enrol and download key readings for courses. One designer noted that an attempt to run post course on-line chat forums was used by a minority of participants.

Exploring Different Management and Leadership Styles

Participants made a variety of responses about different management and leadership styles becoming part of their programs.

In two cases these were recalled as an explicit part of the program:

[We] were given challenges – we had to take on different roles – some people were deliberate blockers just to test out how we performed in the management side of things which I hadn't done much work in- and that worked very effectively.

Yes ... it looked at different management styles and from industry rather than education and how change came about ... there had been a lot of work go into the preparation.

Another mechanism for incorporation of this element involving different management / leadership styles was included in these types of responses:

I don't remember this being explicit, but it was certainly thoughts that I had when people were talking about leadership and so on.

... it came out through the variety of principals [who facilitated programs] ... I came out thinking ... there are thousands of different ways of getting that result and that depends on the principal's style...

... we had principals talking about their visions for their schools
... it wasn't consciously [talking about leadership/ management

styles] ... yes definitely different people – story telling it was really.

One participant considered that leadership and management styles was not a part of their programs.

Designers considered that differing leadership and management styles were incorporated into the programs through the choice of presenters / facilitators. One designer summarised this by stating that:

... a significant and varying group of leaders of workshop presenters and facilitators ... demonstrated a variety of leadership and management styles ...

One designer chose workshop facilitators for their skills. She responded that:

I really wanted credible leaders who had a bit of a gift for their message, and I was [determined] ... about that because workshops hung on the message delivered by the presenters.

Timing/Location/Logistics

This question delved into whether the venues for the programs were appropriate, whether the time scheduling was appropriated (length of

program and time of year for example) and whether the organisation was satisfactory.

The variety of responses could be grouped into some major themes:

- Residential style,
- One-off Structure
- Timing.

Residential style:

This included the notion of an out of school, two and three day program that included ample opportunity for reflection.

There were six positive comments, including:

... location [Shearwater] was ideal and the presenter made sure we had a variety of in-depth work, readings, activities and recreational things.

They were in good locations... down the East Coast ...

... it was really good to go away – to get right out of school – and to be with people from all over the state ...

...I think you need to get away from the things that have day to day influences on you and so going to Bicheno [was good] ... the

residential mode was important – you also got the chance to have collegial support [with another staff member who went] ... there's even a bit of mentoring, or sharing in a residential situation – so that's good.

I think it was really good - ... [I] had two solid days to actually explore things and discuss things and even the location was fantastic ... you had time to think and participate – that was good.

There was a negative comment regarding the structure of the workshop day:

... I didn't really appreciate the time being allocated to golf because I just had to go and fill in the time ... whereas I would rather have gone through the day – got it over and done with and then relax ...

There was also a note of concern about whether this type of structure would apply as well in 2003. One participant noted:

... when I tried to send someone from here [a school where he is principal, compared to her previous school where he was a senior staff member attending T.P.I. programs] – it was just a whole lot harder [to get staff to go to a residential program] because ...

the women were younger and they had family commitments ...
[despite] the enthusiasm ...

One-Off Structure

One negative comment was noted:

... it's a toe in the water type model which isn't ideal for professional development – the ideal is to go and do it, then practise it ... but you didn't really get the spaced learning model.

Timing

One positive comment was noted:

Good timing - as such was towards the end of the week which I felt was really good ... because you could focus on the challenges given [and not concern yourself with issues at school].

Designers were generally less extensive in their comments with respect to timing location and logistics compared to the participant group. The designers generally had no negative reflections on these issues. In addition two designers noted that generally courses were arranged for the beginning of the school year so that, "... you had plenty of time for reflection...". Another designer noted the importance of having a "... range of courses away from the workplace, [this was] given high priority and strong support." Additionally one designer noted that a

common location, Diamond Island at Bicheno, was contracted as a venue because of the competitive rates they charged.

Support for Individuals

When asked about whether individuals were supported in the programs, participants varied in their responses. Three participants considered that there was little support for individuals either by omission or design. Including responses such as:

... there was a goal setting thing and there was going to be follow up ... but it didn't really happen really well ...

It [support] wasn't [part of the program] – but it should be – everyone has strengths and weaknesses – and nobody can do everything exactly right so maybe its looking at things you don't do so well [at] ...

I don't think in either program [that I attended] there was at all – [support] was not appropriate for the style [of these courses I undertook].

The majority of participants felt that there was some level of individual support.

Participants noted that ;

From memory there were some workshops where you could choose to hop into - what suited your particular interests ...

[My principal at the time was very supportive] and so she really pushed me into going the first time around and supported me all the way ...

[When I decided to do my pre-principal accreditation] a [support person was available] and [was] certainly very willing to give time and support to putting that [the portfolio] together ... [and other people were also offered] a bit of support.

... people who ran the programs were quite open to try and help people with individual problems or issues.

... with the group process side of things – there were some people who found it really difficult ...[and so it was arranged for] some people ...[to] ... transfer and some joined another group. That worked well.

[Support] comes down to people's principals ... I had a lot of support for this I know one of the principals who was on my accreditation panel came to visit a couple of times ... [and gave

more ongoing support] ... and one principal did it when he moved from one school to another ... so I was really well supported ...

Designers responded to two questions about individual support for participants. These questions asked about support to ensure access and about flexibility of entry into programs. All designers considered that participants had good access to courses. Access was largely facilitated by allowing participants to easily access funds to employ relief personnel in their school whilst they attended the course(s).

Designers considered that flexible entry procedures into courses were generally not developed. Courses tended to run to a timetable and candidates were required to meet these commitments. One designer commented that the notion of one-line (web based) courses had been considered, however the delivery mechanisms were not available at the time that the T.P.I. was operating.

Learning Styles

Participant's views were gathered on whether the learning styles of participants were taken into account in the delivery of the programs.

A variety of viewpoints were expressed, including a simple negative, "No" and:

I don't think they were explicitly taken into account because I don't feel three years ago people were as aware of the different learning styles ...

I don't think there was any conscious recognition of learning styles of participants - it was just this is the way it was presented.

Some participants thought that learning styles, whilst not deliberately identified, were acknowledged. Comments included:

I don't know if it was taken into account much although the program was thoughtfully put together. ... So some account of that.

Yes, intriguing [question] ... because we had some pretty overpowering people - really focussed learners - who became almost obsessed . [The facilitator] did a tremendous job handling those type of people. ... she was very good in that manner.

... for me it wasn't a problem. I think [later] in the 9-10 one [curriculum reform workshop] there were a lot of different ways that things were done and perhaps this just shows what people had learnt about [learning styles or presentation] - because there was a space in time between those two.

Well I would think in the variety of ways that material was presented – yes [learning styles were considered].

Or, as one participant commented:

It's hard to get away from it all – very language based stuff – and I suppose that's the environment we live in but most people involved in this sort of profession are language based people – lot of language and reflection based stuff – I did find putting together the portfolio that you had to be very left brained about it in a way – that was just because of the nature and volume of it – but – that was also covered very well – the workshops at Diamond Island – the learning styles were actually covered a bit by the different kind of principals you had really and I must say whoever put the program together – they did a good job of combining styles of principals so that one wouldn't follow – so if you had three principals in two days speaking on personal effectiveness – then you wouldn't just – just by the way they combined – don't know if it was done purposefully – or who was available then but obviously some thought went into it.

In general, designer responses indicated no intentional recognition of the learning styles of participants. Comments indicated that a variety

of presentation techniques may have indirectly addressed the learning style needs of participants. Designers stated that:

...we tried to have a balanced program with different workshop structures ... over three days we – we would probably have had about 4 or 5 modes of delivery.

[We matched participant learning styles] ...to a degree.

Not done as effectively as we would have liked ... but if you look at the total course it certainly had a philosophy about the best ways to learn ...

Reflection Opportunities

Two participants, (one who previously commented on the lack of support after a course was completed), were concerned about the lack of reflection opportunities post- delivery:

The best part of the residential thing was good, but once you drove away you didn't really get a chance for reflection – you have the stuff in folders which you might occasionally revisit.

... there should have been some sort of follow up after the residential ... you could have put some of those in practises and

have had some kind of check back with participants ... it might have [also] been a good evaluation of the courses.

All other participants were supportive of the reflection opportunities offered in the courses, including comments such as:

Yes – there were [reflection opportunities built in].

[Reflection opportunities involves] the length [of time] away from school that I think you have to have

... I'm sure some [reflection time] was built in – maybe more increasingly so over time as the years progressed.

... on the second one [course] there were times for reflection.

... being able to reflect in your unit afterwards – that was sometimes quite good – [however upstairs and downstairs sleeping arrangements at Diamond Island sometimes made reflection opportunities] fairly difficult.

Yes there were, we had four reflection times that we were meant to be part of.

[Reflection in the program was useful] very much ... we still talked and discussed things.

All designers noted that the spaced learning model was a key feature of many programs, and as such allowed reflection time for learners, both individually and with colleagues.

Designers noted that:

..spaced learning was built into the induction and extension programs ... [in one case this involved] and on-line chat forum.

[Spaced learning was] ...A big part of all our programs.

... by providing time to reflect, not just individually but with others. There was an opportunity not only to test out in a safe environment one's own values system about education and leadership, but also to reflect on what others said...

Action in Relation to the School Setting

In general all participants noted that some action from the program was linked to their school setting. That is, the program was not divorced from the participant's context. In some cases the link was indirect and depended on the participants own reflection into their school setting.

Participants noted direct links including:

[The facilitator] constructed it [the program] for us to follow up at later dates ... We were able to try things out – come back and discuss them – reflect on them...

... I was given opportunities to put things into action straightaway- and that certainly happened.

In a more indirect relation to action in their school setting some participants commented that:

There were things you took back [to school] ... that certainly influenced what you thought about ...

Yes – it was a higher more generic level than rather relating it straight back to our work.

... I can't remember consciously doing it ... I'm sure it made a difference...

... in the 9-10 curriculum one ... we were actually at our own school involved in thinking about some of the issues raised, it was very timely...

... but it [the program] led to professional development and staff being involved in looking critically at our 9-10 curriculum ... the issues that were raised made you aware that there were some things that would be good to take back to your school, share with your staff ...

Designers were asked two questions pertinent to links with school settings, one about the use of school based data and one about participant actions directly in schools, post coursework.

In general all designers considered that school based data was used in the programs, excepting one individual who had limited involvement with the detail of individual program design and was more involved with overall large scale design elements. Designers noted that:

Again [the need for school based data] depended upon the course, but quite often we would ask them to bring along [school data] ...

Yes [school based data was used in course design]

School based data from participants was a focus in the Principals for the Future, Building Professional Teams and reflection workshops.

... in the ethical leadership workshop ... we asked participants to develop one [school based dilemma] based on their own experience ... [we had to] preserve the anonymity of the people we were talking about.

Three designers commented about action in school settings briefly.

Comments included:

The participants developing portfolios of professional learning were more deeply involved by nature of the program process ... in action ...

...there didn't seem to be the opportunity for participants to come back again and go back to their workplace... I think there might have been one or two programs that used this ingrained approach that you would hope for.

Opportunity for Mentorship

Participants were divided in their opinion about whether they had opportunities to be mentored as a direct or indirect consequence of their involvement in the program. Three participants were very clear that mentorship was a part of the program design:

... the opportunities for mentorship [at Shearwater on the North West Coast] were excellent ... and as a result of it there were a

group of six of us who met on a regular basis and shared opportunities ... so people in my mentoring group actually came to [my school] for a day.

Yes, there were [opportunities for mentorship]

Yes ... we now have 6 or 7 [who meet] as part of our mentoring group ...

Two participants considered that involvement in the pre principal accreditation program required that a mentoring relationship be developed:

[A mentor was involved in] ... my portfolio [work].

It was mentioned certainly as part of the [portfolio] model ... people spoke of it as an important thing but [I was not involved in it.]

Three participants considered that mentorship was either an informal part of their involvement or that mentorship was not a part of the program at all.

Designers were divided in their opinion as to the involvement of a deliberate mentorship component into the program. One designer

considered that mentorship was an indirect benefit of the program at a personal level based on his involvement in some previous programs as a program participant.

Two designers did not recall mentorship being part of the design brief.

One designer stated that mentorship was somewhat variable:

We actually did do [mentorship] but it wasn't widespread. ... We tried it a few times [with individuals] ... but we didn't get it going widespread.

One designer noted that it was part of the pre-principal accreditation process only.

[In the later stages of the program development for pre principal accreditation we said] there will be at least one or two people that will assist you through this process, and we will make it a professional learning program for you ...

A Variety of Program Leaders and Involvement with Non-Department of Education Facilitators

Participants reported that usually there were a variety of program facilitators involved in the T.P.I. programs. On a few occasions these

included facilitators external to the Department of Education. Some participants noted a variety of school based practitioners as part of the program delivery teams:

[The T.P.I.] got experienced principals to take various sessions.

I think they made an effort to get experienced practitioners from schools and so on ...

At Bicheno there were lots [of different program leaders].

Two participants noted that the courses that they were involved in only used one or two program leaders.

Participants commented that whilst external facilitators were not commonly used, they were involved. Participants recalled individual instances where university based personnel, educators from other Australian states, non-teacher Department of Education officers, a representative from a child welfare agency and literature readings external to education were involved in course delivery.

Designers noted that part of the design process involved the input of a variety of practising professionals from within the Department of Education. This component of the design process may be summarised by one designer's comment:

[The involvement of research and practising professional partners] ... was a very strong feature – particularly illustrated by the quality input from University personnel, skilled practising school/ college leaders and senior curriculum officers who worked together in planning and presenting p.d. [professional development] sessions.

One designers noted that input was sometimes sought from facilitators external to the Department of Education. An example included the use of the Covey Institute with respect to leadership development . Two designers noted that the T.P.I. did begin to develop external links to outsource its programs to other agencies and to make links with networks that were involved in bringing international educational leaders into Australia.

4.2.5 Assessment

Participants and designers were asked a variety of questions pertaining to the general area of assessment. The questions were aimed at specific issues:

- How were the participants assessed on their course involvement?
- Did the assessment consider actual changes to work practice?

- Were career outcomes enhanced by involvement with T.P.I. courses?
- Were student outcomes enhanced by involvement with T.P.I. courses?
- Were the T.P.I. courses (structure, content, location, etc.) and facilitators assessed?

Each of these assessment themes will have a results subsection below.

4.2.5.1 Assessment of Participants

Participants varied in their responses to personal assessment. Responses were generally divided into two groups, those that attended Principals for the Future Courses and those who participated in pre-principal Accreditation processes. Participants who attended Principals for the Future courses generally experienced a low personal assessment pressure. One participant was quite emphatic that he was not assessed at all! Two other participants noted that assessment for some courses was very informal and involved attendance, participation and group feedback process.

However, participants who involved themselves in pre-principal accreditation courses were closely involved in personal assessment and made extensive comments on the assessment procedures used, including:

[Pre – principal accreditation] ... was an on-going assessment from when we first started ... [including] an open interview with my assessor ... I was able to choose the order for my portfolio ... [that included] context statements ... [that made it] far more reliable ... I think it really was [valid].

[With pre – principal accreditation] ... I had to demonstrate ... all of the principal competencies ... [and be] assessed by a panel . [I think] testimonials were a very efficient way of doing this ... [that is, providing evidence].

I thought then it was a good way of doing it [ensuring validity].

[My] principal [mentor] who made a lot contact with me ... [and assisted me]... so there was a lot of negotiation available.

Three participants stated clearly that they thought the assessments they participated in were appropriate and valid and that they were able to negotiate parts of the assessment process. One participant summarised his experience by saying that:

...I remember I sat with four other people and [the facilitator / assessor] ... we did a lot of work with her ... and talked about currency and variety and those things ... so there was a lot of negotiation available.

Designers described the pre-principal accreditation processes as “authentic”, they involved valid “testimonials”, “workplace visits”, “interviews” and “peer review based on competencies”. Four designers acknowledged that Principals for the Future programs were not intended to involve formal assessment of participants. The courses were to “provide a professional learning opportunity for [the participants] ... ” and each participant received a “participation certificate – not a formal assessment on how they performed.”

One designer noted that some participants took the opportunity to use their Principals for the Future coursework to provide part or full evidence for completion of units in the University of Tasmania Master of Education program. She noted:

It was then that assessment clicked in, because it usually asked them to write something reflecting on their learnings, describing how they used it and reporting its effects as well as how it fitted with the literature.

4.2.5.2 Assessment for Changes in the Workplace

Both participants and designers were asked if assessment was used to measure actual changes to skills in the workplace.

Three participants involved in the pre-principal accreditation program acknowledged that completion of their assessment tasks made them “more aware” or “in a sense identified the elements ” of the skills

they exhibited in their workplaces. However, these three participants did not acknowledge any measurement of change in skills.

One participant acknowledged that some subtle self assessment may have operated for some participants. He noted that:

[Measurement of change in the workplace was] ... not directly as such – no - it was a personal thing – I think if you took on board the information then your performance usually did improve and you knew that yourself – within yourself.

All four other participants did not consider that course assessments were linked in any way to changes in workplace skills.

Designers made only two links between assessment and change in the workplace. One designer reiterated the possibility of assessment for the university and showing how a candidate may have changed practise in their workplace. Another designer noted how:

[A pre-principal accreditation visit provided] a beaut opportunity to demonstrate workplace skills to a colleague, ...

However, this designer did not note any clear change of workplace skills.

4.2.5.3 Enhancing Leadership Capacity and Career / Promotion Outcomes.

Seven out of eight participants interviewed were sure that the courses they undertook enhanced their own leadership capacity. One participant declined to answer this question. Four out of eight participants considered that involvement in T.P.I. programs enhanced their career / promotion prospects. One participant declined to answer this question and the other three participants provided comments including:

... I feel that the value [of the courses] was felt to be really high by a small group and that it didn't successfully gain the support of people at the Superintendent level. [...who often assist principal selection decisions]

No.

No, it [promotion] hasn't happened to me yet – so say no!

Every designer was loathe to make any direct link between course participation and enhancing career / promotion prospects. Two designers commented that this question would make the topic of an interesting future research topic! One designer noted that her annual report to the Board of the T.P.I. noted very positive feedback from

participants that the courses they had attended “helped their leadership skills and so on.”

4.2.5.4 Enhancing Student Outcomes

Seven participants recognised a small or indirect link between their learning and student outcomes. This link between enhancing leadership and enhancing student outcomes may be summarised by a participant who noted that:

...yes [the program] – indirectly [enhanced student outcomes] -
... I would like to think that everything we do does improve
student learning outcomes ...

One participant declined to answer this question.

Designers were not directly asked about how the T.P.I. courses affected participant behaviour and hence, student outcomes. However, one designer who was involved in post-course tertiary assessment (for subsequent Master of Education qualification credit) of participants made a strong link to changes in behaviour linked to T.P.I. courses. She noted that:

... evidence subsequently received from others in these person's
[course participants] schools – showed how there was a change

that was significant enough ... in the way those people approached leadership in their school... .

4.2.5.5 Assessment of T.P.I. Courses and Facilitators

Six out of eight participants recalled being involved in written feedback procedures that were aimed at assessment of the course structures and facilitators with a view to improving design and delivery of courses. Two participants could not recollect any form of course assessment.

Designers had more detailed statements regarding assessment of courses. They all noted that course assessment included written feedback as well as observational assessment by the lead facilitator at each course. One designer clearly outlined how regular written feedback was a feature of courses she facilitated. She noted that in addition to this feedback, two participants from each course were targeted for an in depth phone interview regarding assessment of the course they had just undertaken. When questioned about course facilitators the designer noted that:

The participants are sitting in judgement – whether we like it or not they are judging you [the presenter] whilst they are sitting there. ... participants are not backward in making known their feelings I was also judging the presenters ...

Another designer noted that written feedback was a common assessment method and that if deliverers were not evaluated highly, "...they were not asked back." Three designers stated that assessment (usually via written and observational feedback) did inform future program development. Two examples were given. One example referred to the aggregated feedback data that informed the Annual report to the Board. This report was then used to assist the steering committee for the following year as they prepared upcoming programs. The second example involved direct feedback about an Educational Leadership course that was interpreted by the designers as negative. As a consequence the designers contracted the Covey Institute to run a future course for principals.

4.2.6 Additional Designer Questions

In addition to the questions asked of participants, designers were asked to comment on:

- consideration of the needs of participants at different levels of professional maturity
- use of personal participant data in pre-course planning
- assessment parameters imposed by stakeholders

4.2.6.1 Consideration of the Differing Needs of Candidates at Different Levels of Professional Maturity

Whilst noting some difficulties, designers considered that the different needs associated with different levels of professional maturity were catered for within the overall structure of the total T.P.I. program brief. Programs were designed, and marketed (in promotional materials) specifically towards aspirant principals, newly appointed principals and experienced principals. Two designers noted that:

[We would aim for] – in the publicity stuff – a target group- ... we would say this one is aimed at ... [a particular leadership group.]

Yes, particular consideration of beginning, newly appointed principals and those people in longer term acting positions ... there was a conscious effort to work from where participants were at [their leadership level].

4.2.6.2 Use of Personal Participant Data in Pre-course Planning

All designers considered that use of personal participant data did contribute to pre-course planning. However, no interview evidence was provided to detail what participant data was collected and how this was used in course design.

4.2.6.3 Assessment Parameters Imposed by Stakeholders

Two designers noted that the University of Tasmania imposed assessment parameters only with respect to any candidate's work that

would be submitted for the Master of Education program. One designer noted that the Department of Education stipulated that:

... assessment [was] to be purely for accreditation purposes and in doing so would be confined to the Principal's Competency Profile.

Two designers noted that there were amicable relationships on the T.P.I. Board between all stakeholders. As such, in general, stakeholders needs were negotiated not mandated.

4.2.7 General Comments

At the conclusion of each interview all participants and designers were invited to make general concluding comment within the parameters of the general interview theme, being the T.P.I. case study and principals' professional development in general. All key themes distilled through interviews are included below. They involve:

- pre-principal accreditation
- educational research
- resourcing
- nature of professional learning
- scope of content

In the following responses, each comment is tagged in brackets and italics to indicate if either a participant or designer made the statement.

4.2.7.1 On Pre-principal Accreditation:

... I feel it [pre –principal accreditation] was really rich ... and was probably one of the most relevant assessment processes that you could go through ... [I think this] should be the way that promotion occurs in our Department ... (*participant*)

4.2.7.2 About Educational Research

... I think the challenges are trying [to] ... keep up with the theoretical understanding, the more we are learning about leadership, change and importance of relationships and ... [hence] looking at the whole ... [as well as] the importance of what is happening in the classroom . (*participant*)

[We need facilitators] ... who are really knowledgeable about leadership – and are also informed about the people they are trying to support. (*participant*)

4.2.7.3 About Resourcing

... time out of school is a real challenge [for the principal to attend professional learning] ... more money [for relief] would be

nice ...[but I don't want to be an] occasional principal.
(*participant*)

... rather than thinking the principal is deserting the school – they need to be given support for their attendance at [professional learning] ... (*participant*)

Putting more senior staff in small schools because one of the things is feeling you can't leave – that there are too many jobs to be done ... (*participant*)

I think its [professional learning] got to be resourced so that people can undertake it ... [and] ...relief is given then you can employ someone to take up some of the more difficult things rather than leaving it to teachers ... (*participant*)

Resources [are the main challenge] ... [and a redirection in resources may be achieved by developing a] ... mindset that says ... schools ought to be the primary focus of the Department ... rather than building a bureaucracy [around schools]. (*participant*)

4.2.7.4 About the Nature of Professional Learning

... I think the timing is important ... I think the just in time stuff is where it should be and I think people don't know [its time] until they get to that point ...*(participant)*

... that just in time stuff and spaced learning is pretty helpful ... [as is] the notion of having mentors. *(participant)*

[Sometimes professional development is needed in a] ...mentoring role *(participant)*

... young [novice] principals need to meet experienced principals ... so that is in a mentoring role...*(participant)*

... one thing that would be good [for principal learning] would be shadowing ... say in [your] first two years [as principal] to spend say a week in three different schools shadowing a principal which would give them a real insight into what's done ... *(participant)*

... I think role play can assist [professional learning] – I think mentoring [can assist] – things that are tailored to [the role of the principal] ... *(participant)*

4.2.7.5 About Scope of Content

... it worries me that we seem to jump from one person's coat tails to the next [currently and] ... I would like to see a more broader – more balanced – [approach to professional learning].
(*participant*)

I think there is a big need for something at pre – principal level ... like Principals for the Future program – it doesn't need to be linked up to the mentoring thing ... [until] .. the person might be showing interest in really genuinely looking for principal roles, then that's the time. (*participant*)

... it is absolutely essential that principals are ... supported in their professional development needs that are linked to departmental needs, but not exclusively so. (*designer*)

[I have strong concerns that] ... genuine Department recognition of the competent leadership skills of senior staff and principals in schools and colleges did not [currently] appear to be a priority. All aspiring leaders and leaders in the workplace thrive and benefit professionally and personally from recognition of achievement, I believe. (*designer*)

[I think the portfolio model] was good ... for the first time ... people said, hang on, we are going to need x number of

principals in the next 10 or 15 years ... [and the portfolio pre principal accreditation process met part of this professional need].
(*participant*)

[Experienced principals have little time] for reflection ... you're just searching not researching ... but you know I think we [experienced principals] need some time for support [professional learning] in that area as well. (*participant*)

[Principal professional development] needs longitudinal, reflective, relevant tasks ... (*designer*)

The whole area of professional development as the name implies has to be professional. It has to be owned by the profession ... [and needs to] invite ... the University, the employer, the Union and others to be partners ... [otherwise] ... the major concern with an employer owning it [professional learning] is that the employer will want only what the employer thinks is important [at that political time] ... [and so] critical issues ... for education ... [can be left off the agenda] ... the profession needs to re-assert that it is the groups that knows what is best for young people and ... schools. (*designer*)

This chapter has organised the results of the case study interviews and other data. Other data was largely sourced from T.P.I. annual reports.

This chapter has used the model components and associated interview questions as the main organisers for the exposition of the results.

4.3 Summary

The study yielded a rich set of results that were well triangulated across both sets of interviewees and with respect to written documentation pertaining to the T.P.I. The richness of the data allowed some key links to be made with the model and literature review as well as allowing some questions to be raised. The conclusions will be pursued in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY.

This chapter will involve a discussion of findings involving methods and procedures followed by the findings linked with the data collection. These findings will be compared to the literature that informed this study. Conclusions will then be drawn for future research work.

5.1 Summary of Methods and Procedures

The formulation of a model of effective professional development, based on a wide literature search provided a solid base for a case study inquiry into aspects of the T.P.I.

Reinforcing the argument of Gall et al (1996) and Merriam (1998), the ethnographic, interpretive case study approach that was employed yielded rich data for the researcher. Over 200 pages of transcribed interviews, accompanied by several detailed reports from the T.P.I. gave a comprehensive base of information from which to work. Using the model as an interview construction aid was effective for both researcher and interviewees.

Interview questions were successful for both sets of interviewees, designers and participants. On occasions, interviewees gave answers that answered questions not yet asked. In these cases some questions were skipped over with the consent of the interviewee.

Following Krathwohl's (1998) advice about outlier data, additional open-ended questions helped set the context of information as well as allow interviewees to explore other domains that the interview schedule precluded. In several cases interesting outlier data was noted. One example was an issue regarding family dynamics and professional learning. This finding has contributed to one of the suggested revisions of the original model.

Gay (1996) warned about the researcher aiming for the best sample group possible. Timing and availability of interviewees yielded an excellent sample group for this study that encompassed a wide range of participants, stakeholders and planners. The data collected provided a rich data source that spanned the experiences of people across several important years.

Triangulations of data from totally differing data sets, such as students, other associated school staff, parents and selection panels was not undertaken within this study. This study primarily used written internal data about the T.P.I. and interview data generated by the researcher. Burns (1996) noted that triangulation was important in ensuring validity of data. However, extensive triangulation between the data sources used in this study was accomplished. Many data items were validated from various viewpoints and across responses from the interviewees. All interviewees were interviewed separately, no discussion links were made during interviews with respect to other

interview responses, and to the researcher's best knowledge no discussions took place outside of the interview situation between interviewees. Indeed, Burns (1996) noted that different actors can generate strong triangulation in this type of study. Validity and reliability were apparent in the alignment of many data points. The coding procedure and iterative interrogation of data yielded many issues that confirmed some aspects of the model, questioned others and raised additional questions.

In summary, the methodology appeared sound and effective. Oral data was supported by written artefacts. Validity and reliability were apparent, including a healthy divergence of outlier issues.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The summary of findings will reflect the order of data discussion. Various key points or issues will be underlined and the links to the literature review in chapters one and two indicated by placing the names of the authors confirming work in brackets. Any contradictory findings will be discussed and possible reasons for these be given. These finding will inform critical reflection on the original model developed as a result of the literature review in Chapter Two. (see Section 5.3 Conclusions).

5.2.1 Findings: Program Preconditions- Drivers and Parameters.

Participants seemed, in general, to have a limited view of the driving forces and parameters applying to the T.P.I. However, in general they were recipients of the program elements, and consequently, were most likely not involved in lengthy genesis discussions.

Participants were virtually unanimous in their view that school leaders needed access to quality training. Associated with this need, was the perception that school leader succession rates would increase in the near future, requiring more competent leaders in a shorter time span than was previously experienced in Tasmania. These driving forces have been previously identified in other educational contexts (NAESP, 1998; Hallinger and Murphy, 1991; Caldwell, 2002; Huber, 2002).

One participant noted that succession was important , “...- that’s how it was sold to me and sold in the flyers in that vein.”

The five designers who provided written and interview data to this case study provided a range of perspectives linked to the important political, and associated bureaucratic, climate of 1998 and 1999 in Tasmania. Ranging from designers who had held long standing philosophical views that school leaders should be responsible for maintaining quality control of their own profession to others, who saw the imperative to capitalise on a unique political climate that would allow school leaders to develop their own professional institute.

Crews and Weakley (1995) noted similarly that a need for internal accountability is sometimes recognised by groups that want to have control of their own quality assurance processes.

Concern from principals that an imposed external accreditation system (Principal Accreditation Centres, facilitated by an interstate consultant company) was inherently flawed and of poor quality may have been a major reason why the Education Department engaged in a cooperative planning group, including the University, to explore a local accreditation option. As one designer said, “ (A senior education department officer).. just wanted to get people accredited and not have any industrial strife.”

In general it would appear that a combination of specific political and bureaucratic circumstances as well as a combination of like (designer) minded educational leaders within the Department and the University, helped generate a young vibrant institute during 1999 that matured and operated until 2003. The institute also seemed to have strong support from the profession (based on participant interviews and the 1999 Principals for the Future Annual Report) as a means of not only accessing quality accreditation, but also on going training as a means to enhancing a future growing need for school leaders (King, 1999).

The 1999 Annual Report stated that 242 people had participated in programs in that year. This number represented over 15% of individuals in each defined promotable position within departmental schools and included a significant 49% of all people occupying Assistant Principal positions (King, 1999).

Issues of succession (factor three in chapter 1) and professional autonomy (factor five in chapter 1) would appear to have been important factors or co-factors involved in the impetus and development of the T.P.I.

Perhaps of greater importance than the drivers behind the T.P.I. program, is the appearance that the program responded well to its own environmental pre-conditions. This is consistent with Leithwood (1987) where he noted that principal professional development is often reactive to current conditions. Reactive as this process may seem, it may have ensured success of the program from the point of view of a comfortable alignment with major stakeholder groups. Indeed, program designers may have heeded the thoughts of Cibulka and Mawhinney (1995) when they warned that care should be taken to not replicate past errors, and hence be proactive in designing a preferred future.

No significant, pervading limiting parameters seem to have been highlighted within this study. One possible reason for this was the apparent adequate resourcing of the programs in terms of design /

facilitators and in terms of low financial cost to participants. However, one common issue noted by a designer and a participant was the issue of access in relation to distance, which, although we are a small state, can sometimes include up to six hours of travel, sometimes including ferry travel and air travel.

To a more limited extent, the structure of the professional learning courses may have been more valuable if a two day plus one day model (2+1) was adapted rather than a three day model. A 2 + 1 model may have allowed for more action and review possibilities to be built into program design.

Given that the T.P.I. programs were often located in one location (for reasonable economic and geographic reasons), this issue of travel time and distance would appear to be very important (to some individuals) when access decisions and resourcing are made in future professional learning programs in Tasmania.

However, in general interviewees perceived that there were few significant limitations with respect to course design and delivery.

5.2.2 Findings: Program Preconditions-Social, Systemic, Local and Personal.

The existing political situation in Tasmania that was sponsoring accreditation, as well as internal Education Department role changes,

seemed to play a dominant controlling precondition role with designers. Interestingly, most participants were comfortable with the fit between the Principals for the Future programs and local factors, possibly due to the rigorous selection of program facilitators noted by one Principal Consultant.

When asked about how much personal detail the program designers used in their deliberations, participants generally thought that little was used, however they did not see this as a major problem. Most of these participants considered that they were firstly making their own choices of course (and hence tailoring the course to their needs to some extent), and secondly that the courses had application to them as system leaders who would work in several contexts during their career (and consequently their own personal circumstances would be likely to change in the future).

Local context input into courses was limited. Local context input seemed to be by way of indirect role play / scenario format or by incidental team interaction when more than one participant per school attended.

It is possible that whilst participants can easily relate to their own local and personal circumstances, program designers may, by virtue of their role, have a much wider systemic or vision driven leadership view of professional learning. In general, the lack of detailed information about

participants personal work circumstances in the Principals for the Future programs may have unconsciously limited the outcomes of some participants. The need for a link between theoretical, big picture learning and a participant's own circumstances has been noted as important by researchers (Fullan, 1998; Glatter, 1986). Similarly, Murphy (1993), considered that training needed to reflect collaborative work processes at faculty and student course level.

Interestingly all participants who involved themselves with pre-principal peer accreditation were strongly positive of the individualised nature of this program. This program required participants to collect detailed personal evidence of their professional competencies and have this evidence assessed. Many participants often completed the requirements with a mentor to help guide their evidence portfolio development. By nature it was individualistic and personal.

Designers alluded to the use of personal details to help plan courses, but provided little detail about how this happened.

5.2.3 Findings: Content

Both participants and designers highlighted the paradox discussed in Chapter 2 (Bredeson, 2002). This paradox can be encapsulated in a key question. Should school leader training be structured around a set of characteristics that build together to create the picture of the school principal (in the Tasmanian case these may be termed competencies),

or should the training of school principals be structured around the notion of developing a skilled, wise, visionary leader, or indeed, should the training of school leaders involve a mix of both dimensions of this apparent paradox?

This question is consistent with issues raised recently in Britain where Barber (2001) and Huber and West (2002) were arguing strongly for non managerial, transformational leadership training styles for head teachers. Gronn (2002) also warned at the inherent risk managerial style training programs that may erode the potential for diversity in leadership.

Whilst this paradox may have been highlighted by the deliberate questioning of the designers with relation to the division between management and leadership, it is interesting to note that it was a key issue of debate at the time with some designers, and that some participants had also noted, on reflection, the same issue. Indeed three participants and one designer noted the lack of a holistic view of the principalship, possibly encapsulated in this quote from one participant that :

... [the competencies] are all valid but I think there was something missing- and I think now that I would have loved to have had so much more- ...- [about] educational leadership ...

Similarly , it is interesting to note that some designers thought that the nature of the competencies, in the Principal Competency Profile, gave a satisfactory mix of leadership and management content. This view may be summarised by one participant statement that :

I thought it (using the competencies) was the best thing in terms of getting a picture of the principal's role...

This view may be consistent with Leithwood's (1994) view of swampy and high ground leadership, where competencies allow a leader to navigate the simpler process driven high ground, however they combine with deeper values and purposes to navigate the swamp.

Finally, although no direct question was asked such as, "How would you have changed the course content design to achieve a more holistic interrelated view of educational leadership?", no designers or participants offered, at the content stage of questioning or later (in conclusion) , a possible answer or solution to this possible question.

In general, the structural base of key competencies including Educational Leadership, Accountability, Interpersonal Relations, Cultural and Ethical Leadership, Political Leadership, and Personal Effectiveness, seems to have been accepted and used successfully by most designers and most participants.

Whilst most participants were not concerned about the generic, non individual, nature of the courses, clearly in the case of at least one participant, context was paramount. As such, some course offerings may not have been as effective as they could have been if individual circumstances of participants were considered more.

All participants considered there was a link between the T.P.I. courses and student outcomes. In all cases this link was perceived as indirect. Two reasons may be offered for this indirect link. One, during the late 1990's and early 2000's some educational leadership training (most likely the T.P.I. was in this group) was associated with the notion of effective leaders and effective schools, rather than student outcomes and achievements. Secondly, this indirect link is supported by research, where the influence of the leader is through the teaching staff and then to student achievements. (Silins & Mulford, 2002).

5.2.4 Analysis: Pedagogy of Professional Development

Extensive questioning of interviewees revealed interesting insights into the pedagogical aspects of the programs offered by the T.P.I. Interview questions probed various issues raised in the literature with respect to effective principal professional development. These elements are analysed according to the sequence of issues in the interviews.

Group Formation Processes

Participants and designers were in strong agreement that group formation processes featured strongly in the T.P.I. course design. Group formation processes were advocated strongly by a lead designer within the T.P.I. Similarly, Mulford (2004) noted that groups often moved through predictable group formation stages, culminating in a high performance stage, “transforming”.

It would appear that designers and participants were aware of this professional development element and participants in particular benefited from its inclusion in the design of T.P.I. processes.

I.C.T.

I.C.T. use gathered momentum over the lifespan of the T.P.I. courses, culminating in on-line readings, enrolment procedures, guidelines and information, facilitator use and on-line review chat options. In general I.C.T. seemed to be viewed as a support to programs not as a possible replacement for courses. This notion is consistent with Bolman and Deal (1993) who considered that advanced media (for example I.C.T.) could contribute to enhanced pedagogy in training courses.

The notion of total on-line courses was not pursued by any interviewees, possibly due to the value of group dynamic processes at residential and face to face interaction with facilitators or, the lack of

appropriate technology, at the time, to enable these processes in a multi-site configuration.

Exploring Different Management and Leadership Styles

Participant interviewees gave evidence of two types of exposure to different management and leadership styles. In some cases these styles were deliberately planned as part of the learning experience in other cases the differing styles became apparent after interaction with different facilitators, who were often practising principals.

Designers did not seem to rate this design element highly and acknowledged also that it was often a personal review by-product of a variety of facilitators.

A renewed deliberate focus on various leadership styles, of participants and other successful leaders may be of value in future professional learning situations for school leaders. Indeed, this aspect was a feature of the Leadership Program for Serving Leaders (L.P.S.L. program) in the United Kingdom, noted by Tomlinson (2002). Grady et al's (1994) finding that gender differences were apparent in the learning styles of leaders and Bolman and Deal's (1994) assertion that leadership is primarily a political activity would also give weight to a diversity of leadership styles being embedded in a training program for principals. Similarly, a diversity of leadership styles may be needed to assist with navigating the emotional, non-rational aspect of leadership that is part

of a rapid change environment (Cookson & Schneider, 1995; Evans; 1996).

Timing/Location/Logistics

Interviewees were generally very supportive of the residential style structure. This structure seemed to resonate with the issues noted by Richardson and Prickett (1994) and Whyllie (1999) who noted the need for appropriate timing, pace and style of training. Many participants commented on the need to be removed from the workplace to enable them to get full benefit, not be distracted and allow for on-site review time. One participant would have preferred a different learning schedule at the residential.

One negative comment was forthcoming with respect to the one-off structure of the Principals for the Future courses. The participant felt that there was a need for further reflection time after the course. This comment has some resonance with other findings that indicated that a two day plus one later (reflective) day may have been more effective for some learners.

The timing of courses early in the school year and at the end of working weeks was deliberate and was supported by participants. This structure allowed learning time before major annual agendas were created in schools as well as allowing participants to focus without

the immediate concern of work matters following the end of the course they were attending.

Support for Individuals;

Individual support for participants was not a key feature of the principal for the Future programs of the T.P.I.. Glatter (1983), Hickcox and House (1991), Schmuck (1993) and Crow (2002) all identified positive outcomes for a mentoring or internship components of principal training programs. Given this apparent disparity between research findings and T.P.I. Principals for the Future program findings it is interesting to note responses from participants and designers in this area.

Whilst most participants felt that they had some access to support, the design of Principals for the Future courses did not lend themselves to extensive support for participants after the courses were completed. In most cases participants noted that there was little expectation (from the facilitators) to continue study or actively working with the theme post-course completion.

However, participants that were involved in extensive personal review for pre-principal accreditation remarked about rich and extensive support for their learning, often being involved with a key mentor. It seems likely that levels of support for individuals was dependent on the structure of the learning program. However, in hindsight, a

deliberate mentor option attached to the Principals for the Future courses may have been a valuable addition for some participants who would have preferred to extend their learning into their workplace.

Indeed one participant noted this need clearly:

It [support] wasn't [part of the program] – but it should be – everyone has strengths and weaknesses – and nobody can do everything exactly right so maybe it's looking at things you don't do so well ...

Support for participants was also forthcoming in respect of program resourcing. All interviewees commented on the fact that adequate resourcing enabled them to participate fully. Interestingly, resourcing was one major theme noted by many interviewees when asked how the Education Department could ensure high quality professional learning for principals in the future. Designers were asked about flexible entry procedures. Flexible entry to programs is noted in some other principal training programs, for example N.C.S.L. (United Kingdom) and Danforth (United States). Due to the nature of the annually recurring competency based programs and, the residential structure adopted in the T.P.I., flexible entry procedures were not generally considered within the Principals for the Future program.

Whilst lack of flexible entry may seem to be a limiting factor for the program, some practical issues are evident. Firstly, flexibility of entry was available to Principals for the Future programs on an annual basis. That is, each course could be accessed each year. Secondly, flexible entry at any point in time along an annual continuum would have entailed a much more complex arrangement of training, especially given the perceived need for interaction with practitioners and group learning methodology.

One participant noted a potentially important point in relation to support for participants if they attended similar courses and that was the need for additional family support to allow aspiring female leaders to access residential style courses. This solitary, but key point, further emphasised the need for training courses to be accessible, and hence acknowledge the needs and personal circumstances of significant participant groups.

Learning Styles

Interviewees were in general agreement that the learning styles of participants were not rigorously considered in the design and planning of courses. Whilst they considered that a variety of learning styles may have been catered for by a variety of learning modes, no deliberate matching of learning styles to course planning was done. Given that Loevinger (1976) stated that adult learners may often move through distinctive ego development stages, it would seem important

to try to match learning styles to program design. This dilemma is encapsulated in a designers comment:

Not done as effectively as we would have liked ... but if you look at the total course it certainly had a philosophy about the best ways to learn ...

Future principal training designs may well benefit from assessing the learning styles of participants prior to delivery design.

Reflection Opportunities

Reflection opportunities were an integral part of planning for the T.P.I. courses, so much so, one designer noted that reflection became part of the embedded philosophy underpinning all course design. This finding is consistent with West-Burnham (2002), Murphy (1993) and Mohr and Evans (1999) who all concurred that reflection needed to be a key element of principal learning.

Despite the important place of reflection, some participants believed that there was a lack of reflection opportunities. This theme was coupled with the issue that since the Principals for the Future courses did not often have a reflective component that occurred sometime after the main residential, reflection opportunities were limited in the longer time span. This finding may also indicate the diversity of participant learning needs or styles.

Action in relation to the school setting

Action by participants in school settings, as a consequence of coursework, was varied. Some courses demanded goal setting and action plans and others required participants to personally review learning and reflect on how they could act within their work place.

Actions seemed dependent on two criteria. The first criteria being, the nature of the learning. For example, a curriculum development workshop versus an ethical leadership development workshop. In the case of curriculum development this could be aligned to Murphy's (1993) notion of field based learning in discrete school projects, and hence have a high probability of involving action at school level. However, in the example of ethical leadership development, notions of hypothetical, out of the workplace, value based learning would be more consistent with the thoughts of Glatter (1986) who considered that leadership training would need to involve courage, judgement skills as well as political and cultural dimensions.

A second criterion may have involved teams versus solitary reflection. In some cases teams of school leaders were more able to develop action plans to implement within their school settings.

Designers acknowledged that detailed data about each school setting and individual participants was not extensively used in workshops. If this individual context data had been accessed, then the possibility of fitting courses to potential actions in school may have been enhanced.

Opportunity for Mentorship

Mentorship was generally seen as an important element in the professional learning scenario by both participants and designers. However, actual mentorship varied between explicit, organised structures to informal opportunistic circumstances. Mentorship findings closely parallel those of individual support, in fact they could be seen to be congruent.

Given the mentorship needs, that were not fully met, of some participants, it would appear that a deliberate mentorship component / option of T.P.I. courses may have been an asset.

This need may be implicit in this comment from a designer;

We actually did do [mentorship] but it wasn't widespread. ... We tried it a few times [with individuals] ... but we didn't get it going widespread.

A Variety of Program Leaders and Involvement with Non-Department of Education Facilitators.

Participants and designers agreed that workshops always involved a variety of leaders and when occasions demanded, non-Department of Education personnel were involved in program facilitation. The variety was seen as a positive attribute by participants and is consistent

with Bolman and Deal (1994). One designer noted that the University was always included as a research partner in the Principals for the Future courses. As such, this design element was found to provide variety within the facilitation team as well as an important academic dimension to the learning.

5.2.5 Assessment

Research with respect to assessment dealt with questions involving: How were the participants assessed on their course involvement?, Did the assessment consider actual changes to work practise?, Were career outcomes enhanced by involvement with T.P.I. courses?, Were student outcomes enhanced by involvement with T.P.I. courses?, Were the T.P.I. courses (structure, content, location, etc...) and facilitators assessed? A summary of findings in each of these areas follows.

Designers and participants noted that Principals for the Future courses were not planned to involve any formal assessment of participants. In fact, the assessments that were undertaken were about the design and delivery of the courses, not, for example, about the participant's levels of skill building or enhanced knowledge. However, some candidates took the option to write about their learning to gain credit for Masters of Education courses. Only in these cases was a formal assessment of participant learning undertaken.

Several interviewees noted that the pre-principal competency portfolio development was assessed quite rigorously through the use of the Tasmanian Principal Competency Profile and trained peer assessors.

In summary, participant assessment levels were dependent on their personal level of need for formal assessment.

In general, all interviewees agreed that no formal assessment of changes to work practice were associated directly with T.P.I. programs.

Indirect assessment of workplace practice changes, associated with T.P.I. courses, may have occurred through workplace assessment visits by pre-principal competency reviewers. However no direct evidence of this happening was forthcoming during these interviews. West-Burnham (2002) considered that peer review and feedback on actual practise could be of great assistance to learners after completing their training. Similarly, Smith and Piele (1997) and Leithwood (1995) acknowledged the high utility of providing structured assessment feedback to training principals in training programs that they had researched.

Given a greater level of resourcing, coupled with a notion of a mentoring component, it seems likely that assessment of change in the workplace would have been possible and beneficial to participants.

Interviewees were asked if involvement with T.P.I. programs enhanced the career outcomes of participants. Whilst anecdotal evidence was provided that this did happen, no formal assessment of this link between learning and career enhancement was undertaken to the knowledge of all interviewees.

Participants were asked to assess if their learning contributed to enhanced learning outcomes for students. All agreed this was an indirect positive link however no direct examples or evidence were given at interview.

One designer noted that she had evidence that one candidate's coursework had contributed to enhancement of her leadership in a school. However, this evidence did not indicate any direct link to enhanced student outcomes either.

Interview evidence from both participants and designers indicated that formal written feedback (and sometimes oral) methods were used extensively to assess Principals for the Future programs and facilitators. Designers stated that this feedback was used to continually enhance and change design and delivery modes of any subsequent courses. This process is consistent with the findings of Eddy and Bennison (2002) who identified program review as a key element of successful program development in New Zealand.

In summary, assessment of participants was only completed for associated qualifications / accreditation purposes. A more extensive assessment / feedback process would have required a higher level of resourcing and may have been beneficial to some participants. Assessment of enhanced career progressions and enhanced student outcomes were not a part of the T.P.I. programs and positive links can only be made through subjective anecdotal participant interview comments.

Assessment of the T.P.I. programs was ongoing and rigorous and contributed to program improvement.

5.2.6 Designer: Additional Questions

Designers were asked a series of further questions with respect to assessment, involving: consideration of the needs of participants at different levels of professional maturity, use of personal participant data in pre-course planning and assessment parameters imposed by stakeholders.

Designers were in agreement that courses met the needs of candidates at different levels of professional maturity. However they exclusively based their opinions on courses being designed to cater for participants at particular stages of leadership development, often associated with positions they occupied, such as newly appointed principals or learning area leaders. This is consistent with Begley's (2000) research that

highlighted the need for training to be tailored to a participant's level of leadership skill and experience.

Whilst designers agreed that pre-course data from participants was used in planning, no direct evidence of this was provided through interviews.

As well, the designers considered that all stakeholder needs had been met, for example, the assessment needs of the Education Department's accreditation, and the University's Master of Education. In addition, all stakeholder requirements went through appropriate T.P.I. board processes for approval.

5.2.7 General Comments

Interviewees were invited to proffer additional comments at the conclusion of their interview. These additional comments were considered important, especially when viewed in the light of people who had just spent at least an hour of focussed conversation on leadership training in general and the T.P.I. in particular.

One participant strongly supported the pre-principal accreditation process as a more valid measure of leadership skills or potential than the current selection process for principals which involve applications and interviews.

Two participants noted the importance of leaders maintaining a good research knowledge base. In the T.P.I. case this was often assisted by University expertise and input.

Several participants emphasised the importance of adequate resourcing for professional leadership training. They stressed that absences of school leaders in schools (for training purposes) needed to be matched by resources to enable a leadership presence to be maintained in schools when leaders were absent.

Several designers and participants stressed the need for quality professional development for school leaders, from classroom teachers to principals. They seemed concerned that this was not a current priority in their profession. They also noted that time was needed to undergo rich reflective learning and that the professional leaders of schools should dominate the design of the agenda for school leaders training, rather than for example, employers.

5.2.8 Summary

In summary, interview data supported many aspects of the literature review. The data also informed consequent model development and highlighted professional learning elements that would appear to need serious future consideration. These elements are taken up in the review of the model that informed this research (see section 5.3.2 below).

5.3 Conclusions

The conclusions discussion will be divided into three sections. Methods and Procedures, Modelling and the T.P.I. Experience

5.3.1 Methods and Procedures

The overall study approach of literature research, model development and case study interrogation / testing of the model was successful. The ethnographic case study approach to data collection, whilst time consuming, (involving interviews, transcription and verification, coding and analysis, distillation of concepts/ ideas, drawing conclusions) yielded a wealth of data that assisted in model refinement and critical reflection of a test case. In many instances evidence aligned to support certain concepts, in others, non-alignment provoked refinements and possible future research areas.

The author considers that the thirteen interview data sources used were probably near a practical limit for a study involving a manual data analysis exercise and a study of this type.

In conclusion, the methods and procedures used appeared practical, sound and yielded positive outcomes.

5.3.2 Modelling Conclusions

The discussion in this section will endeavour to answer the question:

How has this study informed the development of the effective professional development model proposed in Chapter 2 , Section 2.4?

In a global sense, this case study supported the majority of the assertions inherent in the model that were based on the literature research. These assertions involved preconditions, and design / delivery aspects (content, pedagogy and assessment). However, the study raises some key questions and leads to some specific model adjustments.

The first elements of the model involved acknowledging program preconditions. Program preconditions involved drivers and parameters. The main drivers in any professional learning program are significant groups that have high stake in the program outcomes. The model proposed that if the motivations and the expectations of these key groups were not melded into the program structure then misalignment may cause the program to fail or perform poorly. The case study recognised the importance of initial drivers, the University, professional associations and the Department of Education in the T.P.I. experience. Evidence suggests that initial close alignment did occur between these groups and this enabled the T.P.I. to flourish in its early years of operation.

A further question , outside the scope of this case study, would be to consider whether the later dissolution of the T.P.I. was a result of program misalignment.

Parameters were shown to include, budget limits, program timing (start, stop, duration, cycle), mandated program components, attachment to qualifications and computer access. The study revealed that the T.P.I. experience had few parameters that impinged on the program success. Of particular note was that several interviewees provided evidence that the lack of budget constraints to schools was a significant positive parameter.

The issue of distance and travel time to access professional learning for some participants was noted. In fact this parameter may have negated the involvement of some potential school leaders and as such, will be included as an adjustment to the model.

Environmental preconditions were the second group of factors identified in the model. It was asserted that if the program structure did not align itself with significant environmental preconditions then program failure or poor outcomes may also result. Environmental preconditions were classified into the four categories of social, systemic, local and personal.

The case study evidence would suggest that the T.P.I. program recognised the social and systemic elements appropriately and where appropriate. Whilst interviewee evidence did not refute the influence of these preconditions, it may appear that due to their global nature (the learning program sits very much inside these cultural elements) their influence, when alignment is satisfactory, is difficult to discern from a participant or designers point of view.

Local context elements were not a feature of many courses, excepting where teams of leaders attended. Dependent on course goals, the inclusion of school based teams in the courses may have contributed to greater outcomes at a school level, as occurred with one team who attended the grade 9/10 curriculum course.

Of increasing interest during the case study were the personal preconditions. In general, personal data on participants was not rigorously sought or used in helping design programs. Some program inefficiencies may be due to this omission, for example, for some candidates the misalignment of learning styles may have contributed to less than effective learning.

In brief, all the precondition elements of the model were substantiated. The results suggest, however, the inclusion of an access parameter and a stronger emphasis on the personal pre-condition factor.

The model considered three key aspects of all learning programs; content, pedagogy and assessment.

The model dealt with content issues through pertinent questions such as: Does the content consider all relevant preconditions? Does it consider currently researched, relevant, valid aspects of management and leadership ? Are these listed in some form (competencies) to assist with program curriculum management ? Have the needs of the participants been sought and considered ? Does the content challenge? Does the content focus continually on organisational, staff and student outcome development (grounded in reality not abstract intellectualisation)? Does the content involve a focus on leading teaching and learning as well as management?

The case study indicated that all these key questions were relevant to a robust model. In particular the case study highlighted the need for the content dimension to deal with the paradoxes of leadership versus management and holistic leadership versus competency based leadership.

The case study supported the content of courses using a research dimension in conjunction with grounded practitioners. The case study highlighted the necessity to gain input from participants to match their learning needs to course design, in a deliberately planned way rather than by assumption.

The pedagogy elements of the model focussed on significant pedagogical elements evident from the literature research, including:

- Group and individual mentors available within group learning time.
- Computer / on line communication / input.
- Use of groups and teams, understanding of group formation processes considered.
- Deliberate use and practise of different leadership, management styles.
- Deliberate use of participants own school based data in selected activities.
- Different content and program design fitted to skills and maturity in leadership of participants (pre principal, novice, experienced), content fit to individuals if needed.
- Timing / location; considering appropriate learning time, school calendars; retreat / off site / university course organisation.
- Support for access issues, including language, finance, computer skills.
- Flexibility of access to program.
- Teaching / learning styles linked to content.
- Spacing for learning, reflection, action, review cycle.
- Involvement of a partnership of theorist /academic and current practitioner.
- A structured in school mentor (trained) / internship component .

- Possible involvement with other non educational leaders or industry mentors.

Case study evidence indicated that all these aspects of pedagogy were important when considering development of a learning program. No elements were refuted by the evidence. However, the argument for the inclusion of a family assistance dimension in the support for individuals element was strongly argued by one participant and will be included as an additional aspect of the refined model.

Assessment formed the third delivery aspect of the model. The model asked a series of questions with respect to assessment in effective leadership development programs. The assessment element was partitioned into assessment of participants and assessment of the program.

Questions concerning assessment of participants / candidates included:

- Is the assessment manageable for all parties and authentic?
- Will the assessment reflect the maturity level of participants, (pre, novice, and experienced principalship)?
- Will the assessment reflect a competency structure?
- Will the assessment concern management and leadership?
- Will the assessment involve a portfolio structure?
- Will the assessment involve peer, self, supervisor review (s) ?

- Will the assessment determine actual changes or development of candidates in school settings?
- Does the assessment comply with program owner specifications?

Questions concerning the assessment of the actual program included:

- How will the program design be assessed ?
- How will program deliverers and mentors be assessed ?
- How will assessment validity / authenticity be ensured ?
- How will assessments inform future program development ?

Case study evidence indicated that all two groups of questions regarding assessment were important to ask when designing a leadership learning program. That is, no evidence was forthcoming to indicate that any particular assessment question was irrelevant or inconsequential.

However, the case study highlighted a research issue in this area. Many T.P.I. courses (especially Principals for the Future courses) were delivered to volunteer school leaders to inform their personal leadership development and were not generally allied to any qualifications or certification outcome. As such, some participants interview responses did not significantly inform participant assessment questions that presupposed a certification type outcome.

Despite this dilemma, some T.P.I. coursework did involve either certification outcomes for university credit or for pre-principal accreditation. As such, evidence from participants involved in these courses substantiated the importance of the model's assessment questions, and the assumptions behind the questions. Some assumptions were that the assessment regimes be linked to goals, be valid, be reliable, be flexible, be authentic and be linked to behaviours of candidates.

Possibly the most difficult assessment question was, will the assessment determine actual changes or development of candidates in school settings? There was scant evidence from the study to help answer this question. Whilst not diminishing the question's importance, the only available evidence available involved a written submission (assessed by a designer for accreditation) from a peer of a T.P.I. participant who was reflecting on the impact of learning on her colleague in a school setting.

It is evident that a major challenge for future professional development courses is to accurately measure impact of learning in the real workplace.

Finally, all designers attested to the deliberate internal assessment, review and development mechanisms adopted within the T.P.I. and how they lead to program improvement. A variety of techniques were

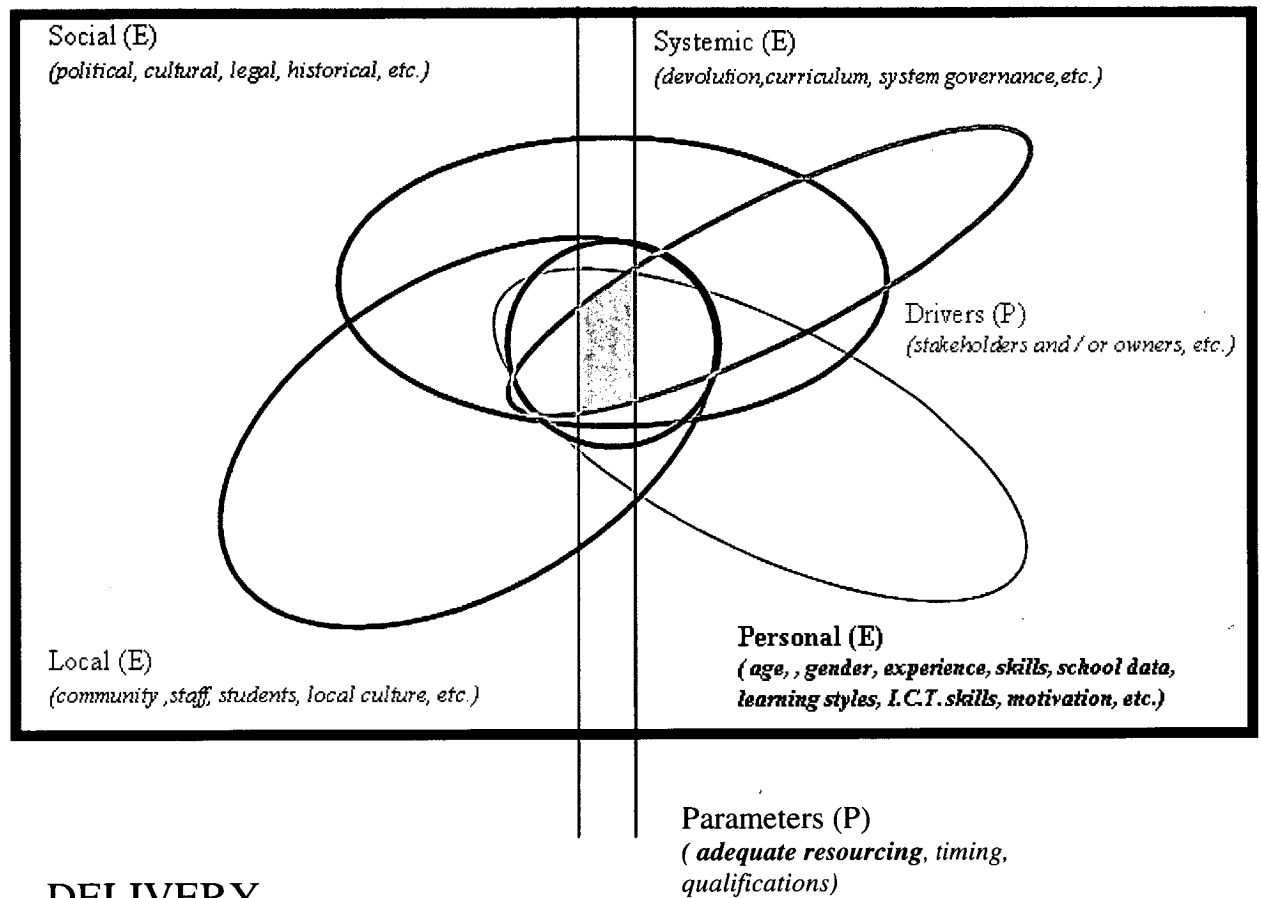
used to ensure validity of assessment for both design and delivery. These included formal written feedback by participants, statistical data analysis of participation rates, observation assessment by principal's consultants and focused oral interviews with a selection of participants.

Given the above study conclusions, Diagram 2 (page 201) represents a revised model of effective principal professional development. The changes are indicated in bold text.

Diagram 2; Revised Model on Effective Principal Training

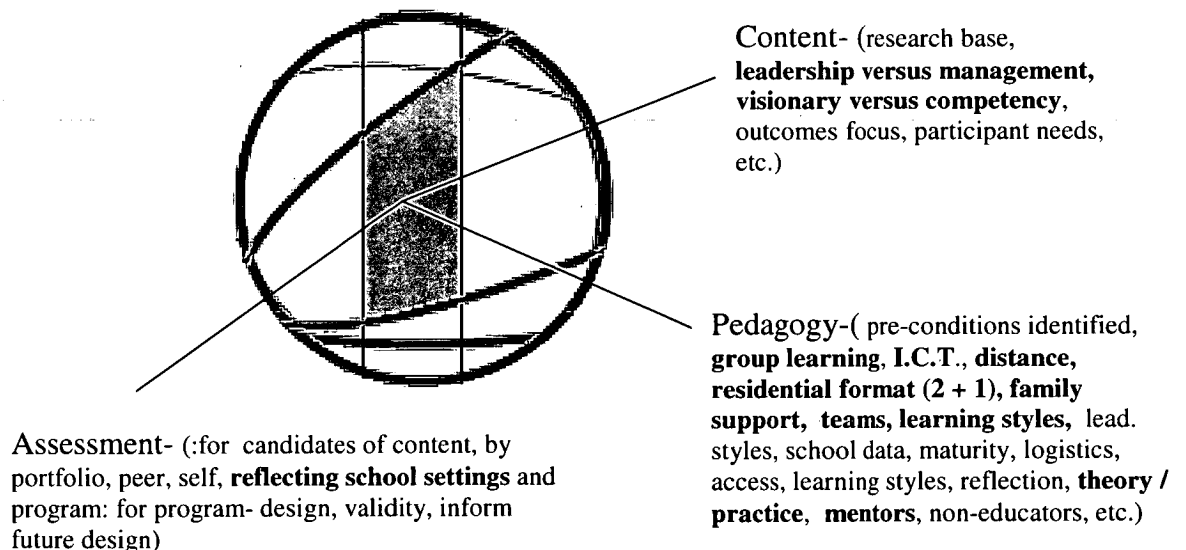
PRECONDITIONS- Environmental (E) and Program (P)

(**Bold text indicates model refinements**)



DELIVERY –

(embedded in centre of
above diagram.)



5.3.7 Conclusions Concerning the T.P.I. Experience.

The key research question for this study is, “Was the professional development program for principals (and aspiring principals) as offered by the T.P.I. of the highest quality?” To answer this key question some linked sub-questions were tested against the model that was developed as a result of the review of the literature, these included:

- “Did the program reflect effective design of professional development for principals?
- Did the program reflect effective delivery of professional development for principals?
- Did the program enhance the promotion chances for aspiring principals?
- Did the program produce substantive principals who had enhanced leadership skills?
- Did the program effect improved student outcomes?

The T.P.I. programs reflected effective design and delivery. Additional resourcing may have facilitated the mentoring in the workplace and assessment of workplace skills of participants. Minor structural changes to program timetables may have enhanced the quality of reflection time needed by some participants.

Rigorous evidence was not available to assess if the T.P.I. programs contributed substantially to promotion chances, enhanced leadership skills or improved student outcomes. However, anecdotal evidence

would suggest a positive link between the T.P.I. programs and these outcomes.

In general, the professional learning model proposed herein supported a view that the T.P.I. programs were of a high quality. That is, the programs satisfied a majority of the criteria suggested by the model.

The importance of adequate program resourcing and a quality current research base to leadership professional development was emphasised by several interviewees and corresponded with the literature findings.

However, the model and associated case study evidence would suggest that a number of issues, listed below, would require some investigation and development to ensure maximum effectiveness of future (T.P.I. type) programs.

The major issues include:

- Further exploration of the paradox of holistic versus competency based leadership development.
- Equitable access (especially time and distance travelled) by all participants.
- Detailed personal profiles of participants to assist program-participant fit.
- Family support for participants, especially women, when using a residential style approach.

- Using the concept of a 2 day + 1 day residential design, allowing time for action / reflection in the work place followed by another short residential.
- Deliberate inclusion of a variety of leadership / management styles within the learning program.
- Enrolment of teams of leaders from each school.
- Maximising I.C.T. use and support.
- Using flexible entry procedures.
- Ensuring a mentor option is available to participants.

5.4 Implications of the study

The study indicates that the contextual parameters (pre-conditions) within which a professional learning program for school principals are nested, and consequently developed within, are important considerations for program designers. Important delivery issues identified in this study regarding content, pedagogy and assessment need to be considered to ensure that the program delivered has quality, integrity and utility to all stakeholders. It is recommended that the amended model could be used and tested as an effective reference tool in future programs for school leaders. It is only through such refinement on the basis of quality evidence that quality assurance in the principalship can be assured.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Study

It is also recommended that future studies in this area of principal professional development consider:

- Program Dissolution: How to ensure the viability of quality programs when environmental parameters change?
- Defining appropriate personal participant data and strategies to match this data to program design.
- Resolving the holistic / competency leadership / management paradox in leadership development programs.
- Expanding leadership development support through a cost effective mentor process.

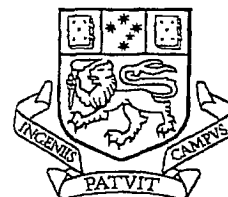
Appendix A: Approval Documentation

Attention: Robert Banfield.



Tasmania
DEPARTMENT of
HEALTH and
HUMAN SERVICES

*Human Research
Ethics Committee
(Tasmania)
Network*



UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

**Southern Tasmania Social Sciences
Human Research Ethics Committee
APPLICATION APPROVAL**

To: Professor B Mulford
Education
Box 66

From: Amanda McAully
Executive Officer

Date: 4th July 2003

Subject: H7404 Quality assurance in the principalship: The case of the
Tasmanian Principal's institute.

The Southern Tasmania Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee on **1st July 2003** recommended approval of this project.

You are required to report immediately anything which might affect ethical acceptance of the project, including:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants;
- proposed changes in the protocol;
- unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

You are also required to inform the Committee if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion, giving the reasons for discontinuation.

Please Note:

Approval is subject to annual review. You will be asked to submit your first report on this project by **1st July 2004**.

Yours Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'A. McAully'.

Amanda McAully

Contact: University of Tasmania
Research and Development Office
GPO Box 252-01
Hobart Tas 7001

Phone: 62 262763
Fax: 62267148
Email: Amanda.McAully@utas.edu.au



Tasmania

DEPARTMENT *of* EDUCATION

30 July 2003

Rob Banfield
c/- Huonville Primary School
Wilmot Road
HUONVILLE TAS 7109

Dear Rob

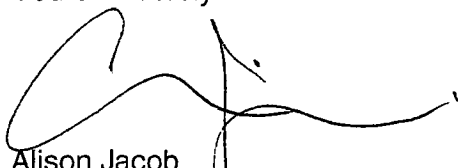
**RE: QUALITY ASSURANCE IN THE PRINCIPALSHIP: THE CASE OF THE TASMANIAN
PRINCIPAL'S INSTITUTE**

I have been advised by the Departmental Consultative Research Committee that the above research study adheres to the guidelines established and that there is no objection to the study proceeding.

Please note that you have been given permission to proceed at a general level, and not at individual school level. You must still seek approval from the principals of the selected schools before you can proceed in those schools.

A copy of your final report should be forwarded to the Director, Office for Educational Review, Department of Education, GPO Box 169, Hobart 7001 at your earliest convenience within six months of the completion of the research phase in Department of Education schools.

Yours sincerely



Alison Jacob
DEPUTY SECRETARY
(EDUCATION STRATEGIES)

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